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## COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

OF THE

TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.



Milleon

A

## COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

OF THE

# TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

BEING AT THE SAME TIME

A HISTORICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

And comprising

GOTHIC, ANGLO-SAXON, EARLY ENGLISH, MODERN ENGLISH,

ICELANDIC (OLD NORSE), DANISH, SWEDISH,

OLD HIGH GERMAN, MIDDLE HIGH GERMAN, MODERN GERMAN, OLD SAXON,

OLD FRISIAN, DUTCH.

ВY

JAMES HELFENSTEIN, Ph. D.

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### PREFACE.

THE advantages of a systematic study of our own language are now so generally understood that it will hardly require an apology for any attempt to promote and facilitate research in this direction. By offering my Grammar to the kind consideration of the public, I intend above all to offer the student of English a guide which may lead him through its different stages of development, and show how it arrived at its present grammatical structure. Thus then my volume may be used as an Historical Grammar of the English language.

In order to gain a clear insight into the development of the English, or any other idiom, it is absolutely necessary to pay attention to the historical course of its sister dialects, as the German, the Dutch, the Danish—to compare the different phenomena they present, and thus to arrive at the laws which directed the growth of each. I have therefore placed the Teutonic languages in their different phases of development side by side, so that they may be studied in the relation they bear to one another and to the English language in particular; and I hope I have given all the necessary data for the study of Comparative Grammar. Thus far I have had in view the

educated classes in general, who are perfectly alive to the interest and importance attached to the study of their own language.

In working out the chapters on the Ancient and Middle Teutonic languages I took care not to omit any grammatical form the knowledge of which is required for the study of ancient literature, whether Gothic, or Anglo-Saxon, or Early English. The reader will find the grammar of each dialect sufficiently complete to enable him who has mastered the details contained therein to proceed at once to the study of the literature of his chosen dialect.

In order not to stop short in our studies at a point where they promise to become most interesting, I have added at the opening of each chapter a sketch showing the relation of the Teutonic to the cognate languages, Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit. Thus then the student of English is enabled to follow up certain parts of his language, such as numerals, pronouns, &c., to their most ancient forms — forms which in antiquity reach back to the very dawn of civilization.

If on the one hand I have endeavoured to enter as far as possible into the details of Ancient and Middle Teutonic Grammar, I have abstained on the other from giving a detailed account of the Grammar of Modern English, German, or Danish. These languages were treated only so far as is required to show the peculiarities of their grammatical structure and the way by which they arrived at the same. Those who wish to acquire any of these languages for practical purposes must apply to the respective Grammars.

Another object (last not least) I had in view, was to supply

a preparatory manual for those students who intend to make Teutonic language and literature a special study, and who must have recourse to the works of Grimm, Bopp, Pott, Schleicher, and others, celebrated on the field of Teutonic and Comparative Grammar. He who has been obliged to pass directly to the study of Grimm's works will be able to acknowledge the desirableness of an introductory text-book.

I have tried to consult the best authorities and to convey to the reader's mind the established results of modern research. In the chapters which treat on the Science of Language and Comparative Grammar in general I have made use of the works of Bopp, Schleicher, and Max Müller. Those on the ancient Teutonic languages owe the greater part of their materials to Grimm; while Heyne's volume on the same subject has supplied much valuable information. As to the English language in particular I have chiefly consulted Koch's Grammar and Marsh's Lectures. All these authors and their respective works are enumerated on a separate list.

I have every reason to feel anxious about the fate of my book. Comparing the magnitude of the subject with the smallness of my abilities and the limitedness of my knowledge, I might quail before the censure of the public, if there were not some points redeeming the rashness of my enterprise. The first lies in the fact that there are many educated men in England and America who apply themselves to the study of Early English, Anglo-Saxon, and the Teutonic languages in general, while no work exists as yet in English treating on the Teutonic languages collectively. Further I may plead the earnestness and diligence with which I pursued my work, endeavouring by this means

to supply the deficiency in knowledge and abilities. But even these considerations would fail to set my mind at rest, if I were not penetrated with the conviction that the English public are always ready to promote every work which aims at the advancement of science and art, if conducted with perseverance and earnestness of purpose and which promises to be useful, on however limited a scale, to some one or other.

Thus, then, I take leave of my work, which for six years has been my constant companion in trials and sorrows; and I dare to hope that it may not be altogether rejected by those for whom it is intended.

THE AUTHOR.

WHITSUNTIDE, 1870.

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#### TECHNICAL TERMS.

- Ablaut. The modification of the radical vowel of the verb in the preterite tense and preterite participle; e.g. English write, wrote, written, sing, sang, sung; German gelten, galt, gegolten, singen, sang, gesungen.
- Umlaut. The modification of a vowel caused by another vowel in the succeeding syllable; e.g. Old Norse giafa, dative giöfu, where ö, the Umlaut of a, is caused by the u in the succeeding syllable; Old High German pale, plural pelkî, where the a of the root is changed into e under the influence of a succeeding i. The same changes take place in German inflexions; e.g. vater, plur. väter; hoch, comparative höher; klug, klüglich.
- Trübung, Schwächung. Darkening, Weakening (Degradation), of vowels; e. g. Gothic hilpa, Anglo-Saxon helpe, i weakened into e; Gothic stulans, Anglo-Saxon stolen, u weakened into o; Gothic stal, Anglo-Saxon stäl, a weakened into ä. Compare Latin corpus, corpor-is; pulvis, pulver-is; facio, conficio.
- Brechung. Breaking of vowels takes place in Gothic, where an i or u, under the influence of a succeeding h or r, is changed into ai, au, respectively—broken, as it were, in two vowels; e.g. Latin vir, Gothic vair; Latin duximus, Gothic tauhum.
- Metathesis. The transposition of certain letters in the same word; e. g. Anglo-Saxon gärs and gräs; English horse, German (h)ross. Compare Latin sperno, sprevi.
- Rhotacism. The change of s into r, e. g. Old High German ror, Gothic raus, English was, German war. Compare Latin honor and honos, rus, rur-is.
- **Gradation.** The combination of a primitive vowel (a, i, u) with the vowel a, whence result a + a, a + i, a + u; which combinations occur in the different languages under various modifications, as the Grammar will show. (See Introduction.)

All other terms are used in the same sense as in Latin Grammar, or they will find their special explanation in their proper places.

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## TEUTONIC GRAMMAR.

#### INTRODUCTION.

GRAMMAR describes the organisms of languages as natural history describes the organisms of natural objects. What plants and animals are to the natural philosopher, words are to the grammarian. The naturalist may satisfy himself with taking notice merely of the outward characteristics represented by any particular object; or he may enter upon a dissection of its organism, lay open the peculiar structure of each organ, show its connection with the whole and the functions it has to perform in this connection. Thus then one and the same object may receive a different treatment, viewed either from the standpoint of natural history or from that of anatomy and physiology. Thus again the grammarian may view the particular word laid before him in its merely outward garb, classify it to its proper sphere, record the changes it may incur under certain conditions—in short, give the natural history of the word; this is Descriptive Grammar.' Or he may dissect the word into its component parts, or let us boldly say its organs, show the structure of these organs and their functions in the whole, trace the word back to its first origin, show how it grew and gave birth to a progeny, which, though displaying all the diversity of varieties, nevertheless preserve 'the type of the species.' This anatomical and physiological handling of the word belongs to the sphere of the 'science of language.'

We give a few examples, taken at random; say the word foot. Descriptive Grammar teaches us that it belongs to the class 'noun,' the order 'concrete,' the genus 'common;' that this word as it stands has the form of the singular, but that as soon as it has to perform another function, that is, to denote the

plurality of the thing called 'foot,' it adopts the form feet. Having told us this, Descriptive Grammar has performed its task. Now it is just here that the science of grammar takes it up and explains to us the phænomenon which Descriptive Grammar simply mentions as a fact. The English foot, plural feet, we can trace to the Anglo-Saxon fot, fet; here then the change of o into e had already taken place. We must therefore make our way still further back, to a still more ancient form, and thus we arrive at the Gothic fotus. This has in the plural fotjus, a form in which the modification of the vowel has not yet taken place. How then did it take place? To learn this we may best turn to the nearest relative of Anglo-Saxon, i.e. Old Saxon. There we learn the following facts. The word 'foot,' which in Gothic belonged to the declension in u (fotus, plural fótjus) took in Old Saxon the plural in i, hence fót, plural fóti. Now this terminational i had in the old Teutonic dialects, Gothic excepted, a peculiar influence under which the vowel a, or sometimes o, of the root was changed into e. This modification occurs so regularly under certain given conditions that we may look upon it as a law, and this law is known under the German name of 'Umlaut' (mutation of sound). According to this law then the Old Saxon foti appears in Anglo-Saxon as feti, and then as fet, the phænomenon of the 'Umlaut' remaining, though the final i, the cause that gave it birth, had disappeared. This 'Umlaut,' which originally had nothing whatever to do with the plural, but was merely the result of the modifying influence of the i, came later on to be looked upon as the sign of the plural.

Let us take another example. Descriptive Grammar tells us that the imperfect of *I love* is *I loved*; but how it is that by the addition of ed the present is changed into a past act, it does not teach. If we apply to the science of language, we are first referred to the Anglo-Saxon lufode, which still leaves us in the dark as to the force and meaning of that preterite suffix. We consequently apply to Gothic. Here we find the preterite of the weak verb, say nasjan (salvare) for instance, is nas-i-da in the singular, a form from which we derive no information as yet; but the plural nas-i-dedum shows us in its suffix most distinctly the plural dedum of dad (did), which is the preterite of didan (to do). The English I lov-ed

consequently means I love-did, I did love.

If we wish to trace a word to its first origin, to observe how it grew and had offspring, and how these offspring developed themselves, the science of language again, laying open the laws by which all development was regulated, guides us in our researches. Take the words father, mother, for examples. Looking around us in the modern sister languages we meet the German rater, mutter, the Dutch vader, moeder, the Danish and Swedish feder, moder, the same words everywhere, but all equally obscure as to origin and meaning. Their Old Teutonic ancestors, as the Anglo-Saxon fäder, môder, Old High German fater, môter, reveal no more, and consequently we turn to the cognate languages where we find the Greek πατήρ, μητήρ, the Latin pater, mater, the Sanskrit patri, matri—forms which refer us back to a primitive potar, matar. In these words we have to deal with two distinct elements—the roots pa and ma, and the suffix tar. The root means 'to protect,' the root ma 'to bear,' 'to bring forth,' the suffix tar, tara indicates personal agency, whence the Latin for in actor, genitor, &c. Thus then 'father' means 'he who protects, 'protector;' 'mother,' 'she who brings forth,' 'genitix.' Casting a glance at the development of this word in the different languages we have mentioned, we find that not only the root, but even the very suffix, is preserved intact, as Latin m-ter, Greek πα-τηρ, German va-ter, English fa-ther. But then we observe that the Teutonic dialects substitute f for the initial p of the root. Now this is quite in accordance with a certain wwwhich directs that wherever a word in Sanskrit (or Greek or Latin) uses p, that is the tenuis, the Low German languages, as English for instance, must use f, the aspirate, and High German ought to use the media. Where Sanskrit has the media, the Low German dialects have the tenuis, the High German the aspirate, and so forth. This law, which is known as Grimm's law, shall find a detailed exposition hereafter.

As another and more faithful instance of the application of this law we mention the word we have examined already: now let us trace it to its origin. The English foot, the German fuß, have their relatives in the Latin pes, ped-is, Greek movs, mod-os, Sanskrit pad-a, and these we refer to the root pad, 'to go.' Here again the initial tenuis p is in Low German represented by the aspirate, and ought in High German to be the media; but the German is often obstinate in resisting the law. Now let us look at the final consonant: here all is in strict accordance to the law; hence the media in the Sanskrit pad, the Greek pod, the Latin ped, the tenuis in the English foot, and the aspirate in the German fuß (Old High German fuoz). Thus we see the offspring of the same parent all preserving the family likeness, or, to use a more scientific expression, the type of the 'species;' but taking by a kind of 'natural selection,' or

whatever Mr. Darwin might call it, a particular consonant in particular languages, they form so many 'varieties;' in plain words, that which originally was one language, splits into different dialects.

Now I hope the difference is clear between the task proposed to Descriptive Grammar and that which is left to Scientific Grammar, or, as it is commonly termed, Comparative Grammar; the former stating the facts or the phænomena of a language or languages, the latter explaining these facts, guided always by certain laws. These laws are the result of repeated observation and rigid examination; they have been discovered by exactly the same mental process as all laws of nature. When we treat on Comparative Grammar we have therefore not only to put the grammatical forms of cognate dialects or languages together, but we have also to trace them to their origin and follow them through the different stages of their growth. Comparative Grammar must consequently be historical too. But languages have no history as mankind has its history, taking the word in its limited sense: languages do not act like men, but they grow and live like natural organisms. When therefore we speak of Comparative and Historical Grammar, or Scientific Grammar, we mean the science of the anatomy and physiology of language or of languages. If we treat on language in general, we are dealing with General Grammar; if on a particular language or languages, we are dealing with Specific Grammar. The tribe of Teutonic languages being our special object in this volume, our grammar belongs to the class of the specific.

Now one word as to the terms 'language' and 'dialect.' We speak of Teutonic languages and of Teutonic dialects, of the English language and of English dialects. Dutch, German. English, Gothic, Anglo-Saxon, Old Norse, are, when viewed by themselves, independently of the rest, to be designated each by the term of 'language;' but when considered in their connection and relation to each other and to their common Teutonic mother. then we call them 'dialects.' English, considered as an independent form of speech as distinct from French or German, is a 'language;' but English as seen in the different provincial idioms into which it is split up consists of an aggregate of 'dialects.' The 'literary' language is only one of these dialects, chosen as the medium of thought for the educated classes; such is the Castilian of Spain, the West-Saxon of English, the Highland dialect in German. From all this the reader will easily understand that we often apply the terms 'dialect' and 'lan-

guage' indiscriminately.

Having to deal chiefly with the Teutonic form of speech, we must devote a short reviewing glance to the different languages which fall within that sphere, consider their relation to each other and to the cognate languages, Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit—all being derived from the same primitive tongue, or

" Ursprache."

We find the modern Teutonic languages settled in almost exactly the same localities which had been the seat of their mother dialects. Swedish and Danish are the offspring of one of the dialects spoken by the Norsemen, the inhabitants of the Scandinavian peninsula and adjacent islands. Though High German has become the sole literary dialect of Germany, the Low German, or 'Platt-Deutsch,' still holds the ground of its ancestor the Old Saxon, whilst the High German in speech is now, as it was a thousand years ago, confined to the southeast of Germany, Bavaria, Austria, and some adjacent districts. The Modern Frisian dialects still nestle in those dear old 'Halligs' along the coast of the North Sea, between the Weser and the Elbe, and into Holstein and Schleswig. In spite of centuries of humiliation and neglect under the Norman invaders, the Anglo-Saxon language yet holds its ground all over England, and the English of the present day is in its grammatical form quite as Teutonic as the Anglo-Saxon of the tenth century. The West Saxon dialect was destined to become the literary language of England; but the speech of the East Saxons and South Saxons, of the North and the South Angles, continued to flourish, and often had a more luxuriant existence than the literary language which was more than once deposed by foreign intruders. Our numerous dialects are the offspring of those children of nature which in their independent state escaped the mandates of conquerors who attempted to uproot them. As to the modern languages we need not enter into ethnographical discussion when we state that we have to deal with the literary dialects of England, Germany, Holland, Sweden, and Denmark. Their ancient mother dialects will require a more detailed exposition.

The oldest dialect and the most perfect in its inflexional forms is the Gothic. This statement, however, must not be taken without some qualification. When we say Gothic is the oldest dialect we wish this to be understood with reference to literary documents only, which in Gothic reach back to the fourth century, while no other dialect possesses any literary

<sup>1</sup> Gospels, about A. D. 360.

documents which date back further than the sixth century. As we shall point out hereafter more fully, Gothic is not superior to the other dialects throughout; on the contrary, Old High German and Anglo-Saxon possess in several inflexional forms the advantage over Gothic. Hence it will become apparent also that Gothic is not the primitive dialect from which the others were derived, but that all the ancient Teutonic dialects, though closely related, are independent of each other, and, for all we know, equally primitive in their type—venerable old sisters among which Gothic is the most venerable, the eldest sister.

The only literary document which has come down to us in the Gothic dialect is the translation of the Bible by Ulfilas, a Gothic bishop. At the birth of Ulfilas the Gothic occupied the ancient province of Dacia north of the Danube. Though politically they were divided into Ostro-Goths, or East-Goths, and Visi-Goths, or West-Goths, their language was the same. Kindred tribes also, occupying the extreme frontiers of Eastern Germany, such as Vandals, Gepidæ, and others, are supposed to have spoken the Gothic language, though probably in dialects slightly differing from that of Ulfilas. The Gothic language must have become extinct before the final disappearance of East and West Goths from the scene of history; it left no daughter or derivative language behind. Ulfilas was born in A.D. 311. His parents were of Cappadocian origin, and had been carried away from their home as captives about A.D. 267, when the Goths made a raid from Europe to Asia, Galatia, and Cappadocia. these Christian captives the Goths first received their knowledge Ulfilas was born among the Goths; Gothic of the Gospel. was his native language, though in after life he was able to write and speak both in Greek and Latin. When the Goths were persecuted on account of their Christianity, Ulfilas led them across the Danube into the Roman Empire. As a young man of education, he was sent on an embassy to the Emperor Constantine, who received him with great respect and called him the Moses of his time. Another interview is mentioned between Ulfilas and the Emperor Constantine which occurred in A.D. 348, when Ulfilas had been for seven years bishop among the Goths. Though the exact date of the Gothic exodus is still a disputed point, it is likely that Ulfilas acted as their leader on more than one occasion. Ulfilas never changed his religion, but belonged to the Arian denomination all his life.

<sup>1</sup> Laws of Ethelbert, A. D. 597.

He died at Constantinople in A.D. 3811. Of his translation, which comprised the whole Bible except the Books of Kings, we still possess the greater part of the Gospels, the Epistles of St. Paul, and small fragments of Esdras and Nehemiah. Besides these portions of the Scriptures there are extant fragments of an exposition in Gothic of the Gospel of St. John, and a fragment of a Gothic calender.

Old High German comprises a number of dialects which were spoken in Upper or South Germany, e. g. the Thüringian, Franconian, Swabian, Alsacian, Swiss and Bavarian (Austrian), and which are embodied in the literary documents of three centuries, dating from the beginning of the eighth to the middle of the eleventh century. We have already observed that none of the Tentonic dialects can be said to have been derived from Gothic. Old High German, therefore, is a sister dialect of the Gothic, of the Anglo-Saxon, and the Old Norse; though, on the other hand, it must be acknowledged that the family likeness between the two former dialects is more intimate and obvious. From the eleventh century a gradual change takes place in the structure of Old High German, the inflexional vowels are gradually worn down or weakened; the full-sounding a is flattened into the thinner vocal sound of e; the vowel of the root itself is more and more affected by the terminational e, so that not only aappears modified into e, but u also into  $\ddot{u}$ , o into  $\ddot{o}$ .

Thus we see from the Old High German a new dialect gradually developing itself, which stands to the former in the relation of a daughter to a mother. This derivative dialect is called Middle High German. It belonged to Upper Germany in the same manner and to the same extent as its parent tongue. Its literary productions reach over a period of four hundred years, from the beginning of the twelfth to the end of the fifteenth century. Whilst the literary documents in Old High German are far from being abundant, Middle High German has bequeathed to us a literature so various in its details, so clear in its ideas, so grand in its conceptions, so refined and melodious in its diction, that it has rightly been called 'the first classical period of German literature.' Exposed, however, to the continued wear and tear of time, the language of the Nibelungen and of the Gudrun, of a Wolfram von Eschenbach and Gottfried von Strassburg, proceeds on its course down the phonetic scale until, in Modern High German, it has almost arrived at zero, the inflexional

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Max Müller, Lectures on the Science of Language, First Series (5th ed.) pp. 199-208.

forms having dwindled down into a few meagre e vowels. This modified High German dialect, this daughter of the Middle, and grand-daughter of the Old High German, presents us with its first literary production of note in Luther's translation of the Bible, and reaches its culminating point in the language of Goethe's Iphigenia and Torquato Tasso, the most classical of all works of 'the second classical period of German literature.'

The same course which we have attempted to trace in this short sketch will be observed when we turn to the other Tentonic dialects and their modern derivatives. Anglo-Saxon, the literary language, is one of the dialects transplanted into Celtic soil by the invaders who came from the western and north-western

districts of Low Germany 1.

The Celtic language was spoken not only by the primitive inhabitants of Britain, but also by the inhabitants of Gaul, Belgium, and part of Spain. No literary documents from that primitive or pre-Roman time have come down to us, probably because the Druids, according to Cæsar's account, shrunk from committing their sacred rites and doctrines to writing. The most ancient Irish documents do not reach back further than

to the eighth or ninth century.

The Roman legions brought their language and customs to The long duration of the Roman occupation, their perennial encampments, the colonies founded by their veteran soldiers, the rise of flourishing cities, the construction of highroads, and other monuments of art and science which are partly extant, show how deeply Roman civilization had struck root in this country. And yet there are no Latin words dating from that time preserved in the language, with the exception of a few compounds, as colonia, coln, in Lincoln, and castra, cestra, cester, in Chester, Winchester, Gloucester, &c. It was only with the introduction of Christianity that a copious Latin vocabulary, chiefly referring to ecclesiastical affairs, found admission into the language of the country. With the scholastic, and subsequently the classical studies, new supplies of Latin terms were introduced into the vernacular; and the mania of latinizing the language in the time of Queen Elizabeth became so general, that Thomas Wilson (died 1581) bitterly complains of the 'strange ink-horn terms' introduced into English. 'Some seek so far for outlandish English, that they forget altogether their

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> There are some who consider the Anglo-Saxon of our ancient documents to be a compound of several dialects which took its rise after the Saxon invasion of England, 'a new speech, resulting from the fusion of many separate elements.' Marsh, Lectures, p. 43.

mother's language. And I dare swear this, if some of their mothers were alive, they were not able to tell what they say; and yet these fine English will say they speak in their mother tongue, if a man should charge them with counterfeiting the King's English.' And of Sir Thomas Browne it is asserted, not without reason, that to persons acquainted only with their native tongue, many of his sentences must be nearly unintelligible; and the author is himself of opinion that if the desire after elegancy continued to work in the same direction, it would soon be necessary to learn Latin in order to understand

English.

We return to Anglo-Saxon. The four Teutonic tribes that invaded Britain have left no record in the dialect peculiar to each; we therefore have no facts from which to obtain any idea as to the nature of their language. The Jutes who settled in Kent, Hampshire, and the Isle of Wight, may probably have spoken a Low German, that is, a dialect most closely akin to Anglo-Saxon, for we find in those districts no traces whatever which point to the Old Norse dialect. But on the other hand it must be admitted that if their dialect had been Old Norse, it might, from its constant and immediate contact with the overwhelming Saxon element, have gradually become extinct in proportion to the amalgamation of the Jutes with the Saxons. The Angles who came from Western Schleswig settled north of the Saxons, between the Thames and the Wash. Their language must have closely resembled the Saxon dialect. But as to the latter, we have no better evidence. The Saxons who settled in England called themselves simply Saxons in contradistinction to the 'Old Saxons,' that is, those tribes of their nation which had remained behind in the old country. Though the Saxon emigrants and the German Old Saxons must have been most intimately related, it is still doubtful whether they belonged exactly to one and the same tribe. On the contrary, judging from the intimate relation existing between Saxons and Angles, their joint enterprises and settlement in a new country, one might feel inclined to take the English Saxons as belonging to a tribe which occupied the district north of the Elbe, and which is to be distinguished from the Southern Saxons. Still the question remains to be settled, whether their language was identically the same or not.

If we take the degree in which the language of the Anglo-Saxon Beowulf differs from that of the Old Saxon Heliand as the only criterion, we must admit that Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon were two distinct dialects. This difference however

may be accounted for in another way. The Old Saxons who stayed behind in their country were generally stationary, and not exposed to external influences which make themselves keenly felt among emigrants by causing rapid changes in manners, customs, and language. The English Saxons, on the other hand, were eminently exposed to those influences. They found themselves in a new country, in novel scenery and conditions of life; they soon forgot their old country with its songs and sagas; they gradually mingled with the Celtic natives, separated into different parties, and founded seven petty states, which were to a certain extent independent of each other. What wonder that such conditions, differing so materially from those of the German Saxons, should bring about a different course of development in their language, and account for the divergence which we perceive on comparing the Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon dialects.

Under the term of Anglo-Saxon we include all the Teutonic dialects which were spoken in England from the fifth century. The term itself was of a later date, and supplanted the earlier terms of 'Saxon' and 'Anglisc.' Grammarians divide this Anglo-Saxon into two periods, Old and New Anglo-Saxon, or Semi-Saxon. The literary documents in Old Anglo-Saxon extend over a period of almost five hundred years, beginning with Beowulf, a poem which the Anglo-Saxons had imported from their own country, and which is supposed to have been written in the seventh century, although there are no manuscripts that can be referred beyond the tenth century. Old Anglo-Saxon again may be distinguished into two principal dialects, the Saxon and the Anglian, or Southern and Northern dialect. These again were probably subdivided into local dialects, among which that of the West Saxons gained the ascendancy and became the literary language, used in Beowulf, in Caedmon's Metrical Paraphrase, and in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. The Northern or Anglian dialect is divided again into the North and South Anglian (Mercia, Anglia—Northumberland), the former being largely tinged with the Danish or Old Norse element. The dialect of Mercia is supposed to have been partly made use of in the composition of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, and the Durham Book is written in the dialect of Northumbria.

The first period of Old Anglo-Saxon is characterized by its purely Teutonic elements, its consonants which closely corre-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It is true that generally colonization fixes a language, as we learn from the Icelandic for instance; but then the fact is chiefly owing to the isolated position of a people, and want of intercourse with other nations.

pond with the Gothic, its rich and varied vocalism and its affectional forms, which, though greatly worn and weakened, re still full-sounding vowels. Besides the natural decline and phonetic changes which we have observed in the transition from Dld High German to Middle and Modern High German, we ind in the English language other agencies at work which combined to give the English language of the present day its liversified aspect, and which therefore deserve some further notice.

The Old Norse dialect, which we shall have especially to mention hereafter, exercised a great influence chiefly upon the language of the north of England, where from A.D. 787 the Norsemen, that is Danes and Norwegians, made repeated inroads and gradually settled in the country. The reign of the Danish Kings too, from A.D. 1002 to 1041, cannot have passed without admitting the Danish element more freely into the language as well as the customs of the Saxons. The Anglo-Saxon vocabulary has consequently adopted a certain stock of Old Norse words, part of which are still preserved in the English of the present day. The northern dialects above all may owe their broad full vowels to Old Norse influences.

Even before the Conquest, Norman-French found entrance into England, chiefly at court. Edward the Confessor, having been educated at the Norman court, had naturally a predilection for the Norman system, which he also imitated by introducing Norman-French as the language of his court. With the Conquest Norman-French found ready entrance among the higher classes. The succession of Norman barons to the confiscated estates of the Saxon nobility, the appointment of the Norman clergy to the higher dignities of the Saxon Church: the erection of convents inhabited by Norman monks and nuns; the intimate connection between the clergy and nobility,—all this tended, in a comparatively short time, to make the Norman tongue the language of rank and education, while Anglo-Saxon continued to be that of the nation at large, that is, the language of the needy and the oppressed. But there is always some intercourse between the upper and lower classes, and where their languages are different, they will of necessity create a mixed tongue, as the occasion requires.

But with the beginning of the thirteenth century, a reaction began. The loss of Normandy by King John suspended further immigrations from that country, and the agreement made between the Kings, Henry III and Louis IX, according to which subjects of one crown could not acquire landed property under the other, put a stop to Norman transmigrations. The despotic aggressions of the English Kings soon joined Normans and Saxons in a common league against their royal oppressors, and in these movements the freedom-loving, honest, Saxon element made itself conspicuous and regained its ascendancy over the Norman-French type. The proud Norman, who heretofore, in order to pronounce dissent or unbelief was wont to exclaim with an oath, 'Then I shall become an Englishman!' or, in order to spurn at an unbecoming proposal, 'Do you take me for an Englishman<sup>1</sup>?'—that same Norman, a hundred years after, was proud of the appellation of Englishman. He in fact gradually lost the consciousness of his Norman-French nationality, so that in 1308 he joined the Saxon in opposing the French favourites whom King Edward had called over, and in compelling the King to dismiss them. These anti-French feelings were still more fostered by the wars with France which commenced in 1339 under Edward III, and which more than anything else tended to amalgamate the Norman and Saxon into one compact nationality—a nationality of which both parties had good reason to be The result of these political changes becomes plainly manifest in the history of the English language. Already in 1258 Henry III ordered the enactments of the Mad Parliament to be published, not only in Latin and French but also in the vernacular; and the victory of the Saxon element was, about a hundred years after, so decided that Edward III in 1363 decreed that henceforth causes pending in courts of law should be conducted in English and registered in Latin, because the French language was too little known. This remarkable document was composed in pure Saxon, unmixed with French<sup>2</sup>. The literary documents of this period in general are characterized by a cousiderable loss in the inflexional forms, and an important admixture of Norman-French with the Old Anglo-Saxon.

English again is divided into three periods: Old English, Middle English, and Modern English. The period of Old English comprises a hundred years. During this period the old inflexional forms continued their decline, so that the declension of substantives hardly show more than the debris of the old inflexional forms. To the Old English period belong Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle, Peter Langtoft's Chronicle, and the Early English Psalter. To the Middle English period belong the writings of Wycliffe, Chaucer and Sir John Mandeville. The period of Middle English is commonly, and I consider rightly, introduced with Chaucer, 'the father of English poetry,' who undoubtedly had

<sup>1</sup> Koch, Einleitung, p. 14.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ibid. p. 15.

a vastly greater influence on the thoughts and on the speech of his countrymen than Wycliffe, whose translation of the Bible was, up to the time of the Reformation, most probably known to none except the learned few. Middle English is characterized by the rapid dilapidation of all inflexional forms, the diminution of strong verbs, and the almost total absence of declensions

of substantives as well as adjectives.

Modern English continued the same decline, and has by this time succeeded in stripping itself of all inflexional forms with the exception of the s and st of the present, the ed of the preterite of the verb, the s of the genitive, the degrees of comparison of adjectives, and a few pronominal cases. As the first important work in Modern English, we may consider the translation of the Bible under the auspices of King James the First, forming the authorized version up to the present time. It was based upon the Bishop's Bible, and the translations of Coverdale, Tyndale, &c., were to be consulted whenever they were in closer harmony with the original text than the Bishop's In spite of the drawbacks we have mentioned, the Modern English language has, according to Jacob Grimm, gained in spiritual maturity what it has lost in the more material advantages of inflexional forms; and, according to another authority, it has during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries been worked out so elaborately that it combines the vigour of the Teutonic with the elegance of the Latin languages, and must be considered completely sufficient for the expression of every thought in poetry or prose.

As to the constituent elements composing modern English the following observations may find their place here. The French element having been engrafted on the German, all inflexions in the English language, such as they are, are German. This is therefore the case with auxiliary verbs and all verbal inflexions, the pronouns, the numerals, conjunctions, and prepositions (with few exceptions). German appellations are preferred for natural objects and phænomena of nature, such as animals, plants and minerals, the parts of the human body, the sky, the weather, and everything connected with them. German are the names which designate articles of dress and weapons; and the farmer characteristically enough uses only German words in the course of his daily occupation; and so, on the whole, does the sailor. The names for articles of food are mixed, some German, others French. Here again it is interesting to observe the characteristic application of French terms for certain kinds of meat, and German for the animals from which the food is derived: the Saxon farmer speaks of ox and cow, calf and sheep, out of which the French or Gallicized cook produces beef, veal, and mutton. The French element has decidedly the ascendancy in such appellations as refer to the political organization, the titles, and dignities of the state, to arts and sciences.

Old Norse we call that dialect which in the olden times, and as late as the eleventh century, was spoken and generally understood in Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and the adjacent islands. This language was preserved almost intact in Iceland, while in Denmark and Sweden it grew into two different dialects, the Modern Danish and Swedish. The Icelandic of the present day has a closer affinity to the Old Norse dialects in the literary documents of the ninth century than the Old High German of the eighth shows to the High German of the eleventh century. This stationary existence of the Norse language in Icelandic can be explained partly by its secluded position in an island far out of reach of continental influence, partly by the stereotyped form which it assumed in the old songs and sagas most zealously cultivated by the Icelander of later times. Their island had been known in the ninth century when voyages of discovery were made thither. Even afterwards, when the despotic reign of Harold Haarfagr threatened to reduce the northern freemen to a state of vassalage, many inhabitants of the Scandinavian islands, a number of noblemen amongst them, emigrated to the distant shores of Iceland, while others directed their voyage towards France and England. In Iceland the Northmen established an aristocratic republic, their settlement began to thrive, and they adopted Christianity in the year 1000.

The old poetry which flourished in Norway in the eighth century, and which was cultivated by the Skalds in the ninth, would have been lost in Norway itself had it not been for the jealous care with which it was preserved by the emigrants of Iceland. The most important branch of their traditional poetry was short songs (hliod or Quida) relating the deeds of their gods and heroes. It is impossible to determine their age, but they existed at least previously to the emigration of the Northmen to Iceland, and probably as early as the seventh century. Those ancient songs of the Northmen were collected about the middle of the twelfth century, and are still preserved in the two Eddas, of which the elder or poetical Edda contains old mythic poems, the younger or Snorri's Edda gives the ancient myths in prose. Both Eddas were composed in Iceland and form the most valuable part of Old Norse literature.

<sup>1</sup> Max Müller, Lectures, First Series, p. 211.

From the Old Norse are derived the modern Swedish and Danish inguages, although it may reasonably be doubted, whether they ave sprung from exactly that form of speech which is preserved 1 the Old Norse literary documents. It is indeed now taken or granted that Old Norse at a very early date was split into wo sister dialects, one, spoken in Norway, being the mother of Ild Norwegian or Icelandic, the other the parent of Swedish and Danish. The first germs of Swedish and Danish are conidered to have existed long before the eleventh century in the lialects of the numerous clans and tribes of the Scandinavian That race is clearly divided into two branches, called by Swedish scholars the East and West Scandinavian. The former would be represented by the old language of Norway and Iceland, the latter by Swedish and Danish. This division of the Scandinavian race had taken place before the Northmen settled in Norway and Sweden<sup>1</sup>.

All the dialects spoken in the Lowlands of Germany between the Rhine and the shores of the Baltic are comprised under the term of Low German. Anglo-Saxon is a Low German dialect, and there are belonging to the same category several others which require a passing allusion. On the north coast of Germany between the Rhine and the Elbe, and to the north of the Elbe, extended the Old Frisian dialect. Though it is preserved in literary documents which do not reach back beyond the fourteenth century, and therefore are contemporary with the Middle, not the Old, High German literature, the Old Frisian dialect nevertheless displays a more antique cast and resembles more closely Old, than Middle, High German. 'The political isolation and the noble adhesion of the Frisians to their ancient laws and traditions imparted to their language also a more conservative tendency. For the same reason we see about that time, nay up to the present day, the Icelandic language but slightly deviating from the grammatical forms which are characteristic of the Old Norse dialect. After the fourteenth century the old Frisian forms become rapidly extinct, whilst in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries they were almost on a parallel with the Anglo-Saxon of the ninth and tenth centuries. 2,

Old Saxon is the dialect which was spoken in the German Lowlands between the Rhine and the Elbe in the districts which lie at the foot of the central plateau of Germany. This language we know from literary productions which date from between the ninth and eleventh centuries, and had their origin in the districts of Munster, Essen and Cleve. The most ancient and most

<sup>1</sup> Max Müller, Lectures, i. p. 210.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ibid, p. 196.

important document in Old Saxon is the Heliand (the Healer, or Saviour, German heiland), a free version of the Gospels, written for the newly converted Saxons about the ninth century. The Old Saxon is the mother of the Middle Low German which is to be distinguished from the Middle German and Middle Netherlandish or Middle Dutch, and the modern derivative of which we find in Modern Low German or 'Platt-Deutsch.' Old Saxon most closely approaches Old High German, whilst the dialect spoken in the districts of Thuringia, Hesse, &c., situated between Upper and Lower Germany, formed a kind of transition between High and Low German. The Dutch language boasts of no such antique documents as we find in English and German, for its literature cannot be traced further back than the sixteenth century. Still it is to the present day a literary and national language, although confined to a small area. Flemish too was in those times the language used in the courts of Flanders and Brabant, but at a later period it had to give way before the official languages of Holland and Belgium, and its use is almost completely confined to the Flemish peasantry.

Having so far sketched the relative position of the different Teutonic languages spread over their respective areas in Europe, we must direct our attention to the degree of relationship in which they stand to each other, and in which they again, taken collectively, stand to other cognate languages. We take for this purpose the Old Teutonic dialects, in which the modern derivative languages will find their illustration at the same time. The six old Teutonic dialects, Gothic, Old High German, Old Norse, Old Frisian, Old Saxon, and Anglo-Saxon, may according to their greater or lesser affinity be classified in three groups: Gothic with its nearest relatives, namely, Anglo-Saxon, Old Saxon, Old Frisian, forming the Low German group; by the side of which we place as a second group Old High German, as a third, Old Norse. All the Teutonic languages however are descended from one common mother which we call the primitive Teutonic (Grundsprache), and the relation of the different groups, ancient and modern, to this primitive tongue will appear

from the following diagram.

The Teutonic dialects again, of which the Gothic is our representative, belong to a group which formerly went under the name of 'Indo-European,' now by that of 'Aryan languages'.' To the same group belong the following classes.

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1. The Indian class of languages. Sanskrit, the most important

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Some German linguists use the term of 'Indo-Germanic.'

language for the student of Comparative Grammar, is the sacred language of the Hindoos. It had ceased to be a spoken language at least three hundred years before Christ. At that time the people of India spoke dialects standing to the ancient Vedic Sanskrit in the relation of Italian to Latin. The dialects, called Prakrit, are known partly from inscriptions which are still preserved, partly from the Pâli, the sacred language of Buddhism in Ceylon, and partly from the Prakrit idioms used in later plays and poetical compositions; and we see at last how through a mixture with the languages of the various conquerors of India, and through a concomitant corruption of their grammatical system, they were changed into the modern Hindí, Hindustání, Mahratti, and Bengáli. During all this time, however, Sanskrit continued as the literary language of the Brahmins. Latin, it did not die in giving birth to its numerous offspring, and even at the present day an educated Brahmin would write with greater fluency in Sanskrit than in Bengáli 1.

2. The Iranic class of languages, among which most closely allied to the Sanskrit is the Zend, or sacred language of the Zoroastrians or worshippers of Ormuzd. To the same class belong

Old and Modern Persian, the Kurdic, Armenian, &c.

The Greek language, with its derivative, Modern Greek.
 The Italic class, represented in several dialects—the Umbric, Osk, Sabine, and Latin; and, derived from the latter, the Modern Latin or Romance languages—Italian, Spanish, Portuguese,

Provençal, French, and Rumanic.

5. The Slavonic class—Russian, Bulgarian, Polish, Bohemian, and Illyrian.

The Lithuanian class, represented by Lettic and Old Prussian (now extinct).

7. The Celtic languages, comprising Welsh, Erse or Gaelic,

the Manse, the Breton, and the Cornish (now extinct).

To these different groups or classes of languages we must then refer our Teutonic dialects for the sake of comparison and explanation. But it would be erroneous to suppose that every word or every grammatical form which we meet in Gothic must be preserved in Sanskrit too, or that for every Latin word we can give the parallel in Celtic or Slavonic. Where, however, one class leaves us without a clue, another may step in to supply the defect. If Gothic does not show an analogy to a certain word in Sanskrit, Latin will do so, or Greek. This holds good especially for the etymology of words, while for our grammatical

<sup>1</sup> Max Müller, Lectures, i. p. 154.

forms, inflexions, and terminations, a reference from the Teutonic to the Latin, Greek, or Sanskrit languages will generally suffice

to trace them to their primitive types.

The Aryan languages which we have just enumerated, being again looked upon as the daughters of an older parent stock, are very often reduced to a primitive idiom, called by German grammarians the 'Ursprache.' From the results Comparative Grammar has gained on the field of the cognate languages, science has succeeded in building up the grammar of the primitive language, the mother of the whole Aryan tribe, the 'Ursprache' of German linguists, the language which was spoken by our Aryan ancestors before Sanskrit was Sanskrit, Greek was Greek, or Latin was Latin. It is not without a feeling of wonder and awe that one follows the bold philosopher into those regions of antiquity, in comparison with which the most ancient documents of Greek or even Sanskrit literature are but of vesterday. We shall introduce all the grammatical forms of the 'primitive language' as far as they have been traced, and as far as they may tend to throw light upon the grammatical forms of the Teutonic languages. When we speak of the 'primitive language' we understand of course that language which was the mother of Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and Gothic; as Latin was the mother of French, Italian, and Spanish. But we do not speak of the one primitive language of mankind, because everything tends to prove that there existed many primitive languages, some of which became extinct, others gave birth to filial tongues. Looking apart, however, from these questions, which belong to Comparative Grammar in general, we confine ourselves to giving as far as possible the primitive types of all the grammatical forms which the Englishman, Dane, or German, uses in his daily speech. To effect this we have of course to trace our way first to the Old Teutonic dialects, to the cognate languages, and thence to the most ancient form of Aryan speech; or, vice versa, placing the primitive form at the head, we follow its course of development in the cognate and Old Teutonic languages, thence through the Middle to the New Teutonic dialects.

The different Aryan languages, though all of them descendants of the same mother, do not stand in exactly the same degree of affinity to their parent, but show more or less family likeness. Thus Sanskrit, for instance, approaches in most cases most nearly the primitive language, while Gothic most widely diverges from it. We may therefore look upon Sanskrit as the eldest, Gothic as the youngest sister of the Aryan family, though it must be well

anderstood that this comparison holds good only to the extent we have pointed out: Sanskrit looks older, Gothic younger, in the garment in which we find them dressed up in the most ancient From what we have stated it will also become documents. apparent that there must exist a greater or less affinity of the Aryan languages to each other, in proportion as they have more or less preserved the family likeness to their common mother. This family likeness is greater in the languages of those nations which settled down in the East, it is less in the languages of Western nations: the former contain more of the ancient forms. the latter have more often replaced them by modern formations. From this again it follows that the allied Slavonic and Teutonic tribes first separated from their ancient home and nation and began their migration to the far West; after them the united Greek, Italic, and Celtic tribes emigrated in the same direction, while the tribes that remained behind in their ancient home split again in two, the Iranians (Persians) settling in the southwest, the Indians in the south-east of the plateau of Central Asia, the original home of the Aryan tribes. The divisions of the primitive language into the different Aryan tongues Schleicher has very ingeniously represented in a diagram, given on the following page, where the length of the lines indicates the duration, the divergence of the lines the degree of relationship of these languages.

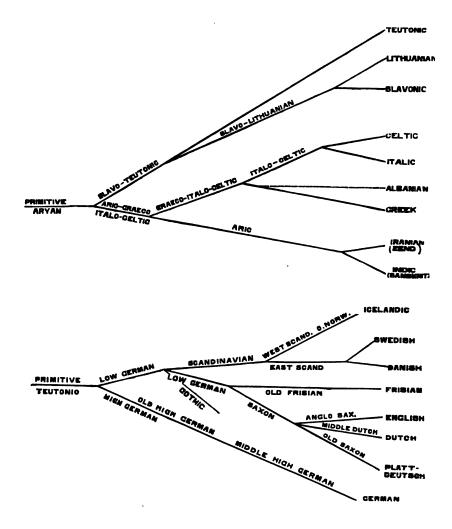


DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RELATION OF THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The arrangement I have made in this diagram differs materially from that made by Schleicher in his diagram of the Aryan languages in the pamphlet 'Die Darwinsche Theorie und die Sprachwissenschaft,' Weimar, 1863.

## VOWEL SOUNDS.

Vowels are formed by the configuration of the mouth, or the buccal tube; but the pitch or tone inherent to each vowel is determined by the chordae vocales. On emitting the breath from the lungs through the buccal tube in order to pronounce a vowel, we may give the interior of the mouth two extreme positions. In one the lips are rounded and the tongue is drawn down, 'so that the cavity of the mouth assumes the shape of a bottle without a neck, and we pronounce u. In the other we narrow the lips and draw up the tongue to its utmost, so that the buccal tube represents 'a bottle with a very narrow neck,' and we pronounce i. Intermediate between the u and i, with lips less rounded than in the case of the former, and less narrowed than in the case of the latter, the tongue neither drawn up nor down, and therefore in its natural position, we pronounce  $a^1$ . Between these there is an indefinite variety of vocal sounds, but every language has fixed upon a limited number, just as music, though the number of notes in the octave is unlimited, contents itself with twelve which suffice to give expression to the most wonderful creations of genius. a, i, and u may be considered as the types of all vowels which differ not only in the quality but also in the pitch of the sound. Their relative position will be seen from the following table:--

i—pitch, or inherent tone: D""
a—pitch, or inherent tone: B" flat
u—pitch, or inherent tone: F.

From this table it becomes clear that u, as it is the extreme of i in the quality of sound, so it is in its pitch or inherent tone; and that a in both respects occupies an intermediate position. The last-mentioned vowel being equally distant from

<sup>1</sup> Max Müller, Lectures, ii. p. 119 sqq.

either extreme, and pronounced while the organs occupy their natural position, it is easily understood that a had every chance

of becoming a favourite vowel.

Now if the physiologist may regard the a, i, and u, as the types of all vowels, the linguist will as readily acknowledge that they are the 'primitive' vocal sounds, and that all others owe their origin to a modification of these. From the sounds of the 'primitive language,' the 'Ursprache,' all the sounds in the different Aryan languages have been developed according to certain phonetic laws which we see at work in the vital processes of language; and to these primitive vowels consequently all vowels in the different Aryan languages can be traced as to their common source. The 'primitive language' in its most primitive form was limited to the three typical vowels, which later on, certainly before the first breaking up of the Aryan family, were multiplied by the a entering into combination, first with its own like, and then with the tw other vowels. Thus we get the following table of gradation of sounds :-

Primiti	ve.		1	. Gradation	II. Gradation.						
								$a + aa = \hat{a}a$			
				a+i=ai							
3. <b>u</b>	•	•	•	a + u = au	•	•	•	a + au = âu.			

The combinations as and sa were probably contracted into at an early period. The vowel a is so characteristically dis tinct from its two fellows that it may be considered as forming a class of its own in contradistinction to that which comprises the vowels i and u. The latter have in their suit, and are often replaced by, the consonants, or semivowels, j and v, while a = 1never passes into a consonant, and thus displays more energetically its vocalic nature. Each vowel is limited to the combinations mentioned in the table, and these combinations are used as a means of expressing in the root itself its rela-The vowels of suffixes also are tions in connected speech. capable of forming those combinations, because they originally proceeded from independent roots; but the primitive form of a root is always rendered with a primitive, that is, a simple In a root with two consonants the combinations do not occur, and such a root has always the radical a, never i or u. Thus then the essence of all inflections we find in the system of vowels.

Long vowels being of a secondary formation they did not exist in the primitive language; where nevertheless they occur

equally in different Aryan dialects, as Sansk. pitā (rs), Greek πατήρ, Goth. fadar=fathār, &c. Schleicher supposes them to be of later introduction, perhaps of a period when the different languages had already separated; and he therefore claims for the last-mentioned words in the primitive language the genuine form patars.

The Sanskrit has, besides the short vowels i and u, the length-ened forms i and d. The combinations ai and au are fused into the single vowels e and d; e being the intermediate sound between a and i, the former ascended, the latter descended to the pitch of e, hence twice e, or e+e=e. In the same manner in the combination au the a descended, the u ascended, to their intermediate pitch o, hence for a+u we have o+o=e. A peculiar feature in the vital process of vowels is the weakening of a full into a thin vowel, the 'Schwächung' of German grammarians, a phenomenon which chiefly occurs with the vowel a, which may be 'degraded,' as it were, in this scale into i, u, and i, d. Thus then we arrive at the following table:—

I. a sounds	1		rad zake			Pri	mil	ive.		I.	Gra	ıdai	ion	II. Gradation.			
	a sounds		6,	u;	ŧ,	4		а					å				â
	sounds																
3.	u sounds		_	_			_	14		_		_	8				âu

The Teutonic languages, of which Gothic is the most ancient representative, have, with characteristic perseverance, kept each radical vowel in its proper order, and thus guarded the main principle of inflections. The vowel a is weakened both into i and u, and these weakened forms occur quite as regularly as the gradations. The first and second gradations are kept strictly distinct, the former in Gothic being  $\acute{e}$ , the latter  $\acute{e}$ . The primitive au has, in Gothic, weakened the a into i, and thus the primitive combination is replaced by iu; in ai the a by assimilation to the i becomes e, and consequently Gothic ei stands for the primitive ai. iu (= primitive au) is sometimes represented by  $\acute{u}$ . Thus we get the table:—

II. Degradation. I. Degradation.										P	rimi	tiv	e.	I. Gradation.						II. Gradation.		
1. Order a																						
2. Order i																						
3. Order w											u					ſц	(4)	١.			au	

In order to give a comprehensive glance over the course of development of vowels in the Old Teutonic languages in general, and the relation of these vowels to those in Gothic, Sanskrit, and the primitive language, I subjoin a table arranged according to the different orders.

#### 1. Order a.

	ú	rad eak	eni	ma		- 1	Pri	miti	ve.		I. 6	<del>Ir</del> ad	ati	on.		II. Gradation.			
Primitive								a				aa					àa		
Sanskrit		i, 1	ι;	ŧ,	а			a				â					å		
Gothic		i;		u				a				ê					ð		
Old High Germa	ND.	e						a				â					No		
Old Saxon		e						а				â (	ê)				8		
Anglo-Saxon .		ä, o	, e					a				æ (	â)				8		
Old Frisian .		e						а				á Ì					6		
Primitive Sanskrit Gothic Old High Germo Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon . Old Frisian . Old Norse		e	-			•	•	a	٠	•	•	â	•		•	•	8		
2. Order i.																			
Primitive								í				ai					âi		
Sanskrit								í				ê					âi		
Gothic								i				ર્લ					ai		
Old High Germ	an	e						i				ŧ					ei (ê)		
Old Saxon		e						i				ŧ					8		
Anglo-Saxon .		e						i				ŧ					à (2)		
Old Frisian		e						i				ŧ					ē (ā)		
Primitive	•	e	•	•	•		•	í	•	•	•	ŧ	•			•	લં		
3. Order u.																			
Primitive								14				au					áu		
Sanskrit								и				8					â <b>น</b>		
Gothic								u				iu	(û)				au		
Old High Germ	an	0						u				iu	(û)				ou (6)		
Primitive Sanskrit Gothic Old High Germ Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon . Old Prisian		0						u				iu	(ú)				8		
Anglo-Saxon .		0						u				e6	(a)				eá (ê)		
Old Frisian		o					٠	u				£u.	(4)				a (a)		
Old Norse	•	Ô				·	·	24	Ċ	:		iu	à				au		
	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	-	•	-	•		\ <del>-</del> /	•	•	-			

These different vowels of the different languages just enumerated are liable to certain modifications brought about under the influence of other vowels or of consonants. Such modifications taking place according to phonetic laws did not exist in the primitive language. Where two vowels happened to succeed, hiatus probably took place, though it could but rarely occur, because the elision of consonants was not yet known. At a very early period, however, a, with a succeeding vowel, may have formed a compound vowel or diphthong, as a and i=ai. But in the cognate languages we find various phonetic laws which regulate the changes and modifications of vowels. Of these we have already mentioned the 'gradation' or 'Steigerung,' according to which the vowel a enters into combination with its own kind (a+a=aa; aa+a=aa), or with i and u (ai, au, &c.), combinations which in the cognate languages are often con-

tracted into one, and then of course a long vowel. The degradation, or weakening, or 'Schwächung' attacked first of all the most powerful of vowels, the a, which in Sanskrit we find weakened into i and u, in most of the Teutonic dialects weakened into e; the latter again often weaken the u into o, the i into e.

Vowels in the different Teutonic Dialects1.

#### I. OLD TEUTONIC.

SHORT VOWELS.

## ă

Gothic. (1) At the beginning of a word:—alev, oil; arja, I plough (Lat. aro); arbaidja, I work (Germ. arbeite); asneis, slave; andeis, end. (2) In the middle of a word:—skalks, servus; favái, few; dal, valley, dale (Germ. thal); farja, I sail (Germ. fahren); hvar, where; þar, there; fadar, father. (3) At the end of a word:—ba, both; fra, from; hva, what; sa, he; sva, so; tva, two; ja, indeed, yes (Germ. ja). In Gothic this short a is nowhere encroached upon by other vowels. Where in foreign words two a's meet, they are rendered in Gothic either with an intermediate h or by one a being dropped, e. g. Abraam, Goth. Abraham; Isaak, Goth. Isak. In Gothic words however, two a's can only meet where a particle is prefixed to a noun or verb, and in this case they remain intact, e. g. ga-arbja, co-heir; ga-arman to have pity (Germ. sich erbarmen).

Old High German has adopted the a under pretty nearly the same conditions as Gothic; it goes even farther and admits an a between liquids, and between liquids and mutes, which in Gothic stoutly refuse the admission of an a; as for instance, Gothic arms, poor; akrs, field); tagr, tear;—Old High Germ. aram (Germ. arm); achar (Germ. acker); zahar (Germ. zähre).

But the Old High German a is considerably modified by the Umlaut, by the inorganic production d (Goth. jä, O. H. Germ. jd); by contraction in the middle of a word, and in a few cases by deviation into o, such as holon for halon, to fetch (Germ. holen); scol instead of scal, shall (Germ. soll); joh for Goth jah, also; and finally in the weak inflexions where Old High German

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> All vowels to be pronounced as in Italian or German, unless directed otherwise.

has hano, cock (Germ. hahn); plinton, blind, for Goth. hana, blindan.

The origin of the Umlaut we have already discussed. In Gothic there is no trace of it to be discovered, while in Old High German it appears to have arisen in the sixth or seventh century, and to have gradually developed itself, exposing the a to modification into e, chiefly before a single consonant followed by i. But even in Old High German the Umlaut is not systematically carried out; even the latest writers, as Notker for instance, preferring sometimes the original pure a to the Umlaut. Thus we find alliu, all, by the side of hella; angil, and engil, angel (Germ. engel); enti together with anti. As an invariable rule, it must be laid down that the i of the termination cannot affect the a of the root unless it stands at the beginning of the terminational syllable, as in enst-i, eng-il, &c. The position of a is exceptional in the gen, and dat, sing, mase, and neut, of the weak declension, where the inflexional i has no power over it to create Umlaut. Therefore hanin not henin, of a cock; lamin, of a lame man; scedin for scadin (Germ. schaden), and nemin for namin, of a name, are exceptions.

Among the Saxon dialects, Old Saxon most closely approaches Old High German, and takes a kind of intermediate position between it and Anglo-Saxon. Its vowel a is throughout identical with that of Gothic and Old High German, and with the latter it adopts it even between liquids and mutes; e.g. sorga and soraga, care (Germ. sorge); bifëlhan and bifëlahan, to order (Germ. befehlen). It wavers less between a and o than Old High German, with the exception of a few cases such as far and for, particle for- (Germ. ver-); wala and wola, well; wërald and wërold, weruld, wërld, world. The particles an and af are

turned into on and of.

The Umlaut is adopted but not generally applied, and the original vowel holds its place before ht and ft; as in mahti, mahtig, mighty (Germ. mächtig); crafti, craftig, strong (cf. crafty, Germ. kräftig); occasionally also in the 3rd sing. pres. of strong verbs, e.g. haldid for heldid, he holds (Germ. hält); fallid, he falls (Germ. fällt); while verbs generally waver between a and e; e.g. standid, stendid, he stands; slahit, slehit, he sleeps;

hebbjan and habbean, to have.

Anglo-Saxon has in but very few cases preserved the pure vowel a, which is generally weakened into  $\ddot{a}$  or flattened into o. The original a keeps its position before a single consonant which is followed by a, o, or u; e.g. hwalas, plur. of hwäl, whale; dagas, dagum, nom. and dat. plur. of däg, day; even before e, if

the latter had its origin in a, o, or u; chiefly in inflexional forms, as care, acc. sing. of caru, care. Foreign words always preserve their pure a sound, e.g. Aprelis (Aprilis), aspide (aspis), carcern (carcer), &c. Before m and n, pure a may stand or be replaced by o, e. g. wam and wom, stain; can and con, to know (Germ. kennen); lamb and lomb, lamb. But a is invariably weakened to a in monosyllabic words which end in a single consonant, or in polysyllabic which terminate in e preceded by a single consonant. Examples: -(1) hwäl, whale; gläs, glass; däg, day; bär, bare, naked; acer, acre, field; bacre, baker; fager, fair, pretty. (2) Before f and s followed by another consonant: craft, craftig, craft, strength (Germ. kraft, kräftig); äfter, after; gäst, guest (Germ. gast); also before a doubled mute or sibilant, e.g. habban and habban, to have (Germ. haben); appel and appel, apple. (3) In other combinations of consonants which are brought about by the elision of e, e.g. fägres, gen. of fäger, äpl for äppel. Two consonants beginning with r tolerate only the broken vowel ea in the preceding syllable, except in cases where r succeeds the a in transpositions, such as gars for gras, grass; barst for brast, burst. These rules however do not hold good for all cases; because in Anglo-Saxon the vowel a, unless it is sheltered or supported by a succeeding low-pitched vowel (a, o, or u), wavers in all directions, so that we cannot look upon its modification in as a strictly fixed law, such as 'Umlaut,' or a systematical weakening of the a, but rather as an aberration of the a from its original pure sound which it has in Gothic and Old High German. In a few cases the primitive a kept its place where one might expect its transition into ä, e. g. blac for blac, black; appel for appel, ange and onge for ange, narrow (Germ. enge).

As to the orthography of this modified a-sound, grammarians are at variance. Grimm writes  $\ddot{a}$ , in order to distinguish this short vowel from the long a, a distinction marked out by others spelling a and  $\ddot{a}$ . I adopt Grimm's mode of spelling, because it keeps the short and long vowels distinct, and, at the same time, runs parallel with the  $\ddot{a}$  and a in other Teutonic dialects.

The Anglo-Saxon e as Umlaut of a must be kept distinct from the modification of the a just mentioned. Very often the i which brought about the Umlaut is dropped or changed into another vowel, and thus arises the hidden Umlaut, e.g. fen, fen; hel, hell; net, net; forms which are used in the place of the geminated fenn, hell, nett: these again were introduced instead of fene, hele, nete, and the latter stand for Gothic fani, hali (halja), nati. Thus we trace the hidden Umlaut to its original conditions, under which alone it could occur.

Old Frisian preserved the vowel a before m and n, whether single, geminated, or combined with a mute, unless it gives way like other dialects to an inclination towards o; hence nama and noma, name; kumpa and komp, fight (Germ. kampf); man and mon, man. But the vowel a can never pass into o where Therefore the pure a in framd, foreign Umlaut takes place. (Germ. fremd); mantel, mantle; manniska, man (Germ. mensch); hangst, horse (Germ. hengst); because by the side of these appear the modified forms, fremd, mentel, menska, hengst. The vowels a and a in the termination preserve the a of the penult: knapa, boy (Germ. knabe); fura, to go (Germ. fahren); balu, evil (comp. baleful). Before the double consonants, a or e may occur, but so that the former appears preferable in the following cases: before l, r (= ks), and geminated mutes, e.g. falla, to fall; bulde, soon (Germ. bald); salt, salt; even kalde, the cold (Germ. kälte), instead of the Umlaut kelde; sax, knife, sword; atta, father; katte, cat.

Old Norse has very largely patronized the pure a, after Gothic perhaps more so than any other dialect. This vowel occurs in gala, to sing; snar, quick; napr, cold; hrafn, raven; slag, blow

(Germ. schlag); ragn, currus (Germ. wagen).

Where a occurs at the end of a word it is always lengthened into a; this lengthened form is also adopted by some grammarians and rejected by others, before consonantal combinations

with I and n; If, Im, Ip, Ig, Ik, Is, ng, nk.

The Umlaut of a into e is caused by the occurrence of an i in the succeeding syllable, and that of a into o by u in the same position. Hence the vowels a, e, and ö may occur in one and the same word in different cases of the declension according to the terminational vowel; a circumstance which imparts to the Old Norse dialect a peculiar flexibility and softness which we can readily perceive on looking at the different forms of the word magu, which declines thus — mög-r, magar, megi, mög; plur. megir, maga, mögum, mögu. Whenever i does not cause the Umlaut of a in the preceding syllable, it must be considered inorganic, as for instance in skari (Germ. schaar), Danir (Danes). The Umlaut  $\ddot{o}$  is marked differently in different manuscripts and editions of manuscripts, either simply by o (hence hon and honum for hön, hönum); or by the sign  $\varrho$  (whence the Danish  $\varphi$ ); or by au and av. The sign  $\ddot{o}$ , which is now in general use, is of a far more recent date.

vowel in Gothic is, after a, the most prominent. Though ometimes encroached upon by the 'Brechung' before h it receives on the other hand a numerical increase by the ation of the semi-vowel j wherever the latter happens to at the end of a word or before a consonant, e. g. harja, ri; nasjan, preterite nasida. A radical i followed by r vowel likes to admit the semi-vowel j, e. g. fijan for fian,

(cf. fiend).

High German preserves the pure Gothic i before m and ther geminated or combined with a mute, e.g. swimman, ; in words which have dropped a final i or u; in nouns belong to the themes in i and u; in the imperative of verbs; in the past participles of the fifth conjugational in monosyllabic particles. Some prefixes waver between , e. g. far-, fir-, even for-, and later on fer- (Germ. ver-);

; za-, zi-; ar-, ir-; durah-, durih-.

many cases however the pure Gothic i is weakened or ed into ë by the power of assimilation exercised by an a succeeding syllable. Hence the rule- Whenever i is ed by a in the succeeding syllable it is changed into e; i and u and in the above-mentioned cases it remains ged.' On this rule are based the modifications of the in the two first classes of the strong conjugation; and will be perceived why we read in the sing. pres. hilfu, hilfit; nimu, nimis, nimit; and in the plural, helfames, hëlfant; inf. hëlfan, to help; nëmamës, nëmat, nëmant; man, to take. Monosyllabic words which have dropped rminational a, nevertheless retain the modified vowel ë, ec=wega, way; sper=spera, spear; ez, it (Goth. ita); and on the contrary which have dropped an i or u retain, in ance with our rule, the pure i unchanged, e.g. mist (Goth. u), lid (Goth. libu), list (Goth. listi). How sensitive the igh German dialect is with respect to the law of assimilaill be perceived from the fact that the modification  $\ddot{e}$  is re-exchanged for the original pure i whenever it is folby the adjective termination in, e. g. fell, skin (Lat. adjective fillin, of skin (Lat. pelliceus); gërsta, barley, ve girstin, of barley. In several words the i has kept its n in spite of the following a, such as fisk = fiska, fish; bitter, &c.; in others, either i or e may be used, e.g. nd skip, ship; wiht and wëht, thing; irdin and ërdin, earthen (Germ. irden, terrenus). Concerning the 'Brechung' of i into ë we shall have to say a few words hereafter.

The rules which we have just mentioned as to the weakening of *i* into *e* in Old High German, will hold good for the Low German dialects as well. Here, however, it is interesting to notice how they more or less apply this rule in proportion to their greater or less affinity to Old High German. Old Saxon, the nearest relative to Old High German, from its geographical position as well as its general characteristics, follows the Old High German rule which we have laid down above; but it so far deviates that it retains the unmodified *i* before *m* and *s* where they are geminated or combined with a mute; hence wind, wind; singan, to sing, &c.

The conjugational forms are affected as in Old High German, but niman retains its i throughout the present tense. Formations such as bërg, mountain (Germ. berg), and gibirgi (Germ. gebirge); gërsta, girstin; the fluctuating forms geba and giba, fihu and fëhu, and the forms remaining unmodified in opposition to the rule, widur, against; bittar, bitter,—all these cases have already received their explanation in Old High German.

The Anglo-Saxon dialect has preserved the rule in a very imperfect condition, or it has perhaps never fully adopted it. It is true that m and n protect the pure i, but so do other consonants as well: thus we find swimman, to swim; spinnan, to spin; and also gifan, to give (O. H. Germ. gëpan, Germ. geben); lifer, liver (O. H. Germ. lëpar, Germ. lëber); cniht, knight, boy, puer (O. H. Germ. cnëht, Germ. knecht, servus). In the conjugation of strong verbs the rule is partly preserved. The 1st sing. yields to ë, but the 2nd and 3rd retain the i; hence 1st helpe (O. H. Germ. hilfu, Germ. ich helfe), l help; 2nd hilps (O. H. Germ. hilfis, Germ. hilfst), thou helpst; 3rd hilps (O. H. Germ. hilfit, Germ. hilft), he helps.

The Old Frisian dialect agrees with Old High German by applying our rule in the following examples: hëlm, helm; sëlf, self; hërte, heart; hëlpa, to help; wërpa, to throw (Germ. werfen); bërch, mountain (Germ. berg); swester, sister, &c.; but a succeeding u, or its representative o, has no longer the power of preserving the pure i, hence felo, many (Germ. viele); fretho, peace (Germ. friede); selover, silver; and the change between i and ë which we traced in the strong conjugation of Old High German, Old Saxon, and Anglo-Saxon, has altogether disappeared, and the verb is reduced to the monotonous forms, werpe, werpst, werpth.

The Old Norse dialect in this respect follows the Old High

nan more closely than some of the Low German dialects do.
reserves the rule so far as it always admits the modification
whenever succeeded by a, and rejects the same before simple

d a geminated mute.

oncerning the strong conjugations, we find in the inf. and of the eighth, ninth, and tenth classes the original i reed in some roots and before nn, nd, rn, and a geminated in—finna, to find; spinna, to spin; binda, to bind; vinda, to d; vinna, to work; liggia, to lie, &c., and in the part. pret. The fifth class; the rest have adopted ë, which, where it once entered, keeps its ground throughout as it does in Frisian. Old Norse, as well as in other dialects, the application of ë or innot always be determined by a rule, but must be simply erred to the usus loquendi.

# ŭ

In Gothic we find this letter, as well as i, in its pure sound at a beginning, the middle, and the end of words, in which cases her dialects frequently allow the vowel to be lengthened or akened. But, like i, the letter n also is subject to Brechung fore the consonants h and r, in which position it is changed

to au. More of this phenomenon in its proper place.

Roots ending in v vocalize this consonant into u, just as roots ding in j vocalize this consonant into i. Hence the theme va forms the nom. pius instead of pivs, servant, voc. piu: the set. of snivan, to hasten, and pivan, to serve, is snau, pau. The posite case occurs when the vowel u is dissolved in the phasonant or semi-vowel v, especially in the inflexional forms there the hiatus must be avoided, e. g. hand-ive, gen. pl. of

andus, hand; sun-ivê, gen. pl. of sunus, son.

The Old High German dialect preserves the pure vowel u in any instances; but it modifies it to o under the same circumances under which it changes the i into ë. Hence the rule—Whenever u is followed by a in the succeeding syllable, it is rkened or weakened into o; but when the succeeding syllable ings u or i instead of a, the original sound u regains its sition in the root.' Thus will easily be understood forms such the following: chlupumës, we clove, fidimus; chlupi, thou ovest, fidisti, and chlopan, cloven, fissum; and on the other and swummumës, we swam, part. swumman, swum; sungumës, art. sungan, we sung, sung; in which forms the doubled m, and u combined with the mute g, preserve the u from the acroachment of the succeeding a.

In Old Saxon the vowel u is kept intact in many places, as in the words sculd, debt (Germ. schuld); sumar, summer; sum, son; ubil, evil. But it allows the Trübung, or darkening, into under the same conditions as Old High German. Fluctuating forms are, drohtin, druhtin, lord; drohting, druhting, friend, familiaris; fohs, vusso, fox; for, fur, before, fore; gomo, gum, man; corni, curni, corn. The u is restored to its position in the root by the influence of the terminational i, e. g. horn, horn, cornu; adj. hurnid, of horn, cornutus; gold, gold, aurum; adj.

guldin, golden, aureus; fora, fore, pro, and furi.

Anglo-Saxon goes even beyond Old High German in its tendency to preserve the organic u in the root, so that it allows before single m and n, and even before other consonants, whilst Old High German preserves it only before geminated # and n, or a mute combined with one of these liquids. Examples: guma, man; punor, thunder; punian, to thunder; ful, ful; fugol, bird (Germ. vogel); words which have invariably the weakened o in Old High German. In the conjugation of the strong verb, especially in the preterite, the vowel u is sheltered by a succeeding m and n, e.g. swummon, we swum, natavimus; swummen, swum, natum; clumbon, we climbed, scandimus; clumben, climbed, scansum; sungon, we sung, cantavimus; sungen, sung, cantatum; but in the past participle, if it is followed by any other consonant than m or n, it is weakened into o, e.g. multon, pret. pl. of meltan, 'to melt,' part. molten; wurpon, worpen; budon, boden; curon, coren, &c.

Peculiar to Anglo-Saxon is the transition of w into u where it appears in combination with i, in which case the latter vowel is often dropped. Thus: wudu, wood, for widu; cuman, to come, for cwiman; suster, swuster, sister, for swister. This i preceded by w is however safe from encroachment when it is followed by

the liquid m or n combined with another consonant.

In Old Frisian the vowel u is but rarely preserved, since it

has greatly given way to the 'Trübung' in o.

Old Norse approaches far more nearly to Old High German in the preservation of the pure Gothic vowels a, i, and u, but in this dialect also the 'Trübung' o may take the place of the organic u before all consonants, except such as are combined with m or n. An analogy to the Old High German conjugations we find in the exchange of u and o in the pret. pl. and part. pret. of the sixth and tenth classes; as, spurnum, sporninn; spruttum, sprottinn; budum, bodinn, &c.

The Unlant of u is y. Old High German, Old Saxon, and Old Frisian reject this Umlant altogether, whilst in two other

utonic dialects we find it more or less developed. Angloxon shows many examples of this Umlaut: cyning, king,
m cunian, to know; dyrstig, daring, from duran, to dare;
len, goddess, from gud, god. In a few instances the word
wers between the Umlaut y and the original u, e.g. wurt,
rt, wort, herb; wurm, wyrm, worm, worm; and in others the
nlaut y takes place in derivations where the root has the
akened vowel o instead of the original u, e.g. gyden from god,
men from porna, thorn; gylden from gold. In Old Norse,
ich has most widely and persistently developed the system
Umlaut, the y occurs regularly for the radical u, or its weaked form o, under the conditions which we have enumerated
ove; e.g. syni, dat. sing. of sonr, son; kyn, kin, genus;
la, to fill; bryggja, bridge, &c.

# ĕ, ŏ, ğ.

These short vowels are altogether unknown in Gothic. Their relopment and relative position in the other Teutonic dialects have already had occasion to dwell upon, so that we need ally do more than sum up our remarks made in the preceding ragraphs. The vowel  $\check{e}$  is of twofold origin, either Umlaut a, or the 'broken' or 'weakened' form of i. Old High Germ, Old Saxon, and Old Norse hardly go beyond this rule in adoption of the letter  $\check{e}$ , but Anglo-Saxon sometimes, and d Frisian often, admit e instead of the pure a in cases which re often show the modification  $\check{a}$  in Anglo-Saxon.

The letter  $\breve{o}$  we met either as the 'broken' or 'weakened' m of u in all the dialects except Gothic, or as the representive of a in cases of assimilation, so much favoured in Old

igh German.

The vowel  $\tilde{y}$  has a proper place but in few dialects; the Gothic iguage uses the sign v in Gothic words as a consonant only; t in foreign words this letter represents the Latin vowel y as il. In Old High German, Old Saxon, and Old Frisian the tin form y is used in foreign words only, whilst Anglo-Saxon I Old Norse adopt this vowel chiefly for the purpose of exsing the Umlaut of u. At the same time, y in Anglo-Saxon often the representative of other vowels; namely of i, of e are it is the Umlaut of a, and of the 'Brechung' ea and eo.

## Brechung.

othic: When the consonants r and h directly succeed the el i or u they affect the purity of the pronunciation in such

a manner as to make an a to precede the sound of i or u. inorganic diphthongs which are thus produced in the Gothic dialect have nevertheless the value of a short vowel, and ai and au must consequently have sounded in pronunciation similarly to e and o. In order to distinguish this 'Brechung' from the true diphthongs ái and áu, modern grammarians have adopted for the former the accentuation at and at. Gothic documents write both Brechung and diphthong perfectly alike; and it was left to the researches of modern philology to point out and prove the difference from corresponding words in the kindred languages which always render the Gothic Brechung by a short vowel, and the Gothic diphthong by a long vowel. Thus Goth. vair is Lat. vir; Goth. tauhum, Lat. duximus; Goth. fair, Lat. per; Goth. baira, Lat. fero, Gr. phero; Goth. taikus, Gr. děka; Goth. saíhs, Gr. hěx; Goth. daúhtar, Gr. thygater, O. H. Germ. tohtar; Goth. ains, Lat. anus, O. H. Germ. ein, A. S. án, O. S. and O. Fris. én. Further light is thrown on the pronunciation of the Brechung at and at by the fact of the Goths having rendered the short e or o in foreign words, without any regard to the succeeding consonants, by the very same letters of the Brechung, certainly because at and at in pronunciation came nearest, or were perfectly alike, to  $\check{e}$  and  $\check{o}$ . Hence they write not only Teibairius = Tiberius, Faurtunatus = Fortunatus, which are in accordance with the Gothic Brechung before the consonant r; but also aípistaúlé, epistole; Naúbaimbaír, November. By different accentuation of Brechung and diphthong we keep up distinctions which must have been heard in Gothic pronunciation, such as the diphthong ai in the singular and the Brechung ai in the plural of the verb. Thus Goth. laike, commodavi; O. H. Germ lêh; A. S. láh, pl. laihvum, commodavimus; O. H. Germ, lihumés; A. S. ligon; Goth. táuh, traxi; O. H. Germ. zôh; A. S. teáh, pl. taúhum, traximus; O. H. Germ. zŭgumés; A. S. tugon. In very few cases, and then only before the consonants r and h, it can be doubtful at all whether we have to deal with the Brechung ai or the diphthong ai, and then comparison with kindred dialects will soon remove the difficulty. Thus gairs requires the diphthong on account of the Old High German ker; hairus the Brechung on account of the Old Norse hiorr. Before any other consonant but r and h the vowels ai and auare always true diphthongs. A few exceptional cases have preserved the original vowel intact even before r and h, e. g. skura, shower; huhrus, hunger; hiri, hear you, audi; hirjib, hear ye, audite, &c. &c.

Old High German has least of all Teutonic dialects adopted

and and by the vowels e and o, which are quite identical with and o the weakened forms of i and u. We may indeed say at the e in përgan and in sëhs is the Brechung because it ands for ai in Goth. bairgan and saihs; but this distinction oes not avail us much, since the same vowel ë may occur, not ally before h and r, but before any other consonant as well.

More perfectly perhaps than any other dialect except Gothic has Anglo-Saxon developed the system of Brechung. In this dialect the Brechung ea for a occurs regularly before a combination of consonants beginning with an l, r, or h, e.g. beald, bold; ceald, cold (Germ. kalt); eald, old (Germ. alt); eall, all; feallan, to fall; wearm, warm; stearc, strong (Germ. stark); eahta, eight (Germ. acht); eax (x=ks=hs), axe; weax, wax. In such consonantal combinations it may often happen that one or other consonant, perhaps even the h itself which caused the 'Brechung' has been dropped, and yet the Brechung continues to exist, e.g. eal = eall, all; mear = mearh, mare; ear = earh, the sea. Sometimes Brechung appears before the single consonant h, as in beneah, he needs; gefeah, he rejoiced: in the verb slean, to slay, and bwean, to wash, the Brechung continues though & has been dropped by the contraction of sleahan, pweahan1. Even before an f and before liquids we sometimes meet with ea instead of the usual ä, e.g. creaftig = cräftig, strong (Germ. kräftig); beadu, headu, battle. On the other hand it may occur that the Brechung we should expect before certain consonants has been replaced by the Umlaut e.

As ea is the Brechung of a, so is eo the Brechung of i, which occurs most frequently before consonantal combinations beginning with an r, e. g. eorl, earl; sweord, sword; heorte, heart; eorde, earth; steorra, star; meorc, dark, murky; steorfan, to die (Germ. sterben); weorpan, to throw (Germ. werfen). With these examples corresponds the Brechung in Old Norse and Gothic: O. N. iarl, earl; Goth. hairto, heart; airba, earth; O. N. stiarna, Goth. stairno, star; vairpan, to throw. Less frequently it is found before l, as in feola, much (Germ. viel); meole, milk; seolfor, silver: and before h, leoht, light; eoh, horse: or before mutes, freode, peace (Germ. friede); heofon, heaven. h seems to patronize an i preceding it, whilst r, l, and the mutes prefer the weakened form e to the Brechung eo, the vowel e occurring alternately with the Brechung eo in kindred words, e.g. wer, man, vir; weorod, crowd, turma; meole, milk; melcan, to milk; seolfor, silver, argentum; silfren, of silver,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Some write sleán, bweán, as a diphthong, on account of the contraction.

In these instances eo seems to be sheltered by the o in the succeeding syllable, and may consequently be considered an assimilation; as in general, bisyllables with a dark vowel in the last syllable prefer eo in the penult. Verbs which admit the Brechung eo restore the original i in the 2nd and ard persons singular, e.g. weorpan, to throw, wirpst, wirpst (Germ. werfen, wirfst, wirft); steorfan, to die, stirfst, stirfs (Germ. sterben, stirbst, stirbt) The close resemblance in the pronunciation of the double vowels ea and eo may be the cause of an occasional confusion in their application, and of the orthography eo instead of ea, e.g. eofor and eafor, boar (Lat. aper, Germ. eber); beorht and bearht, shining. Another form of the Brechung, though of rare occurrence, is that in ie, which however belongs to Old Saxon rather than Anglo-Saxon. It is sometimes used for the Brechung eo, hiere = heore, of her, ejus; for the weakened e, gield=geld, money (Germ. geld); for i, siex = six, six: even for  $\ddot{a}$ ,  $giest = g\ddot{a}st$ , guest.

Old Norse has not the great variety of Brechung we find in Anglo-Saxon, but it is not so capricious either. Wherever lor succeed an i, this vowel is modified into ia. Sometimes a single consonant, or a combination with mutes, may produce the same effect. Examples: - giald, money; stiarna, star; biartr, shining; iafn, even, level. The Umlaut of ia to iö is caused by the letter u in the succeeding syllable; but when the inflexional syllable contains an i the Brechung is removed altogether, and the radical i is, according to the law of assimilation, restored to its place. The influence of these different euphonic laws gives the declersion the aspect of a variegated colouring, and imparts to the language a peculiar and melodious softness. Thus compare singnom. hiörtr (r=ur) stag, gen. hiartar, dat. hirti acc. hiört; plnom. hirtir, gen. hiarta, dat. hiörtum, acc. hiörtu. the weakened e has taken the place of i the Brechung cannot occur. Hence the verbs of the tenth conjugational class have either preserved the original i, or they have e throughout, with the exception of four verbs, biarga, to conceal; gialla, to sing; gialda, to spend; ekialfa, to tremble, which have in the infinitive, imperative and subjunctive present ia, in the indicative present e-

The other Teutonic dialects have less persistently than Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse carried out the law of Brechung. But with the exception of perhaps Old High German none is altogether without some traces of Brechung. Old Saxon offers the following forms of Brechung: weard, ward; georno (Germ. gern); steorro, star, instead of ward, gerno, sterro—forms which however may be explained by Anglo-Saxon influences

which can here and there be traced in Old Saxon. The Brechung ic is used instead of the vowels e, ë, and even e, in the following forms: hieri, army (Germ. heer); thieses, hujus; thieson, huic; thiem, iis; kiesur, emperor (Germ. kaiser). Another ie of an altogether different nature seems not so much dependent on succeeding consonants (which is the characteristic feature of every Brechung) as the unsettled nature of the vowel, and which in many instances gradually passed through ie into i. Thus we find giuhu, I confess, for gihu; so also iuhu for iiuhu = jiuhu. Here in must be considered a Brechung. This Brechung in in occurs more regularly in Old Frisian whenever i precedes the consonants cht, e.g. riucht=richt, right; riuchta=richta, to judge, richten; kniucht, servant (cf. Germ. knecht and Eng. knight); slincht, plain (Germ. schlicht); sincht, he sees (Germ. sieht and sicht). A few other cases where it seems to occur are triurke, church; wrist, wrist; and triust, pellicium.

The only traces of Brechung which we detect in Old High German are in Notker, who has ie for i before h in jieho, sieho. The Essen Rotule has twice thiores holtes instead of thurres holtes; for Old High German prust everywhere briost, breost—phanomena which we perceive in Old Saxon and Old Frisian-

as well.

#### Assimilation.

Words of three and more syllables often show an inclination to assimilate to each other the non-radical vowels in such a manner as to convert the vowel of the preceding into the vowel of the succeeding syllable. Gothic does not yield to this assimilating tendency, but Old High German has developed it most systematically. In words of three syllables the last syllable assimilates the penult, e.g. sconara for sconora; garenem for garanem; bitturu for bittaru; spîhiri for spîhari. Words of four syllables assimilate either the third to the fourth, as giholono for giholano; irtolgono for irbolgano: or the second to the third, as hungirita for hungarita; wachorota for wacharota; or the second and third to the fourth, as hungorogon for hungaragon. The assimilated vowels remain short though the assimilating be long, e.g. pittiri for pittari, not pittiri. Assimilated vowels have the same influence as organic vowels upon the root in causing Umlaut, weakening &c., so that for instance the assimilated adali becomes edili when the vowel of the penult is assimilated to the final i, thus causing the Umlaut of the a into e; and in ferahi, where we perceive the weakening of the radical i into e on

account of the succeeding a, the original i is restored to place when the a of the penult is assimilated to the final i, at thus we get the form firihi, vulgus. Thus then we see that it assimilation of vowels took place according to strictly fix laws, though it was applied in certain authors only and new generally adopted. Since towards the end of the Old Hig German period the final vowels are more and more flattene and weakened, cases of assimilation become scarcer, and final

disappear altogether.

Old Saxon manifests some traces of assimilation in trisyllable such as hélogo for hélago, holy; mikulun for mikilun, great sorogon for soragon, curis; and between liquids and mutes, when instead of the letter a, the vowel of the root finds entrance, e. bereht for beraht, brilliant; burug for burg, borough, urb wuruhtjo for wurohtjo, workman. Whilst Old Saxon displa scanty traces of assimilation, Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian di card it altogether. Old Norse again, like Old High Germa adopts this law and applies it regularly under certain condition Thus the trisyllabic plural of the preterite of weak ver invariably assimilates the letter a of the penult to the termin tional u, e.g. ritudu for ritadu, scripserunt; blotudu for blotad immolaverunt. This u produced by assimilation may can Umlant in the root, e. g. sköpuðu, creaverunt, of scapa; kölluð vocaverunt, of kalla. In the same manner are to be explain the feminine forms gömul=gömulu, fögur=föguru, þögul=þögu of the adjectives, gamall, old; fagar, fair; pagal, silent. Brechung ia may return to the original i by assimilating itself a succeeding i, e.g. hiortr, hiartar, hirti, mentioned above.

#### LONG VOWELS.

# Â

This vowel is wanting in Gothic. Where therefore it occ in the cognate dialects its place is taken in Gothic by é. The we find á for Goth. é in O. H. Germ. jár, Goth. jér, ye mál, mél, time (cf. Germ. ein-mal, zwei-mal, &c.); wán, Go véns, hope (cf. Germ. wahn); sláfan, O. S. slápan, Go slépan, to sleep; dád, Goth. déds, deed; máno, Goth. mé moon; O. N. mál, Goth. mél, time; máni, Goth. ména, moc blása, Goth. blésan, to blow (cf. Germ. blasen). In seve dialects the Gothic é of the plural preterite of the eighth s ninth conjugational classes is commonly rendered by á, thus

Goth. némum, sumpsimus; O. H. Germ. námumés, O. S. námun,

A.S. námon, O.N. namum.

Frequently the long a has its origin in an inorganic lengthening of the short a. Thus then we find for a of the Gothic fåhan, to catch; bråhta, attuli, I brought; jäh, yes (Germ. ja), the O. H. Germ. fáhan, práhta, já; O. S. fáhan, to catch; bráhta, já: Goth, þå, then; svå, so, sic, A. S. þá and swá: Goth. så he, is; sva, so, sic, O. N. sa and sva. This production of the Gothic ă into d in the other dialects must invariably take place where two a's or an a and another vowel are contracted into one, or where an elision of consonants occurs. Thus O. H. Germ. átum for ăhătum, breath, spiritus; Wisara for Wisaraha, Weser; han for hapen, to have; hat for hapel, he has; O. N. ha, hay; tár, tear; nátt, night; átta, eight; ást, favour, for Goth. havi, tagr, nahts, ahtau, ansts. In some dialects we find the Gothic terminational of the nominative and accusative plural of the declension in -a replaced by d, as in O. H. Germ. visca, kepå (also kepő), for Goth. fiscos, gibós; and O.S. has besides fiscos, dagos, also fiscas, dagas. On the other hand the long a passes occasionally into the boundaries of the long o, as O.S. froho for fraho, Goth. frauja, lord; frô, for fráh, joyful (Germ. froh); A.S. mona for O.H. Germ. mano, Goth. mena, moon; sona for M. H. Germ. san, soon: and in Old Norse we find a few cases in which the long a is even converted into the short o, e.g. quon for quan, Goth. gens, wife; vod for vad, O. H. Germ. wat, dress; von for van, Goth. vens, hope.

In Anglo-Saxon the long a occurs most frequently as the representative of the Gothic diphthong ái (O. H. Germ. ei), thus being most probably the condensation, as it were, of a more ancient Anglo-Saxon diphthong ai. Examples :- A. S. agan, to have; tacen, token; hlaf, bread; lare, doctrine; sceaden, to separate; ham, home, for Goth. aigan, taikns, hlaifs, laiseins, skáidan, háims. The same relation to the Gothic ai we find in the Old Frisian, e.g. a, A.S. a, Goth. ai, law; ham, home; "ga, to have, &c. In this dialect however the long a is most frequently found in the place of the Gothic diphthong au, which in Anglo-Saxon is replaced by ea, as we shall have to show hereafter. Hence O. Fris. are, ear; age, eye; hlapa, to run; ga, region or district (Germ. gau), for Goth. auso, augo, hlaupan, Janjans. In very few cases the Old Norse dialect has, like the Anglo-Saxon condensed ái into á, as tá, toe; sár, sore, vulnus; a, I have; by the side of which we find, as in Old High German,

the diphthong ei in eiga, to have.

The vowel a, analogous to e the Umlaut of a, appears as the

Umlaut of d. In this capacity however we meet it only in Old Norse, and exceptionally in Anglo-Saxon. O. N. &=O. H. Germ. d; e. g. sall, happy; arr, year; vana, to hope; sadi, seed=O. H. Germ. salig, jar, wanen, sat: O. N. &=Goth. di; a, always; sa, lake, sea (Germ. see); sna, snow (Germ. schnee); lara, to teach (Germ. lehren),=Goth. div, saivs, snaivs, laisjas.

This same Umlaut appears occasionally in Anglo-Saxon, chiefly in the conjugations, e.g. hate, vocor (Germ. ich heiße); hætst, hæt, Goth. háita háitis, háitib. As a rule however the vowel æ in Anglo-Saxon has less of the nature of the Umlaut than of that wavering, transitional sound of a, which on a former occasion we found encroaching upon the position of the vowel & Thus again  $\alpha$  replaces the  $\alpha$  which undoubtedly in Anglo-Saxon, as in Old High German, was the original vowel, and often indeed preserved its position intact before the consonants m, v, p, l, t, g, in the preterite of verbs: in most cases however, yielding to a weakening influence, it was gradually thinned into a. sound, more nearly than the Old High German a, approaches the Gothic sounds of  $\hat{e}$  and ai, which it has to represent. For O. H. Germ.  $\vec{a}$ , Goth.  $\vec{e}$ , we meet it in the following words: set happiness; dad, deed; strat, street; wag, wave (Germ. woge); and in the preterite plural of the verbs of the eighth and ninth conjugational classes, e.g. lægon, sæwon, sæwon, tæron, &c. In this instance, however, the original  $\hat{a}$  preserves its place before the consonants which we have just mentioned. Hence we find lágon for lagan, sáwon for sæwon. For Goth. ái we meet A. S. æ in sæ, sea; dæl, deal, pars; clæne, clean; hæden, heathen; flæsc, flesh.

ê

This vowel has in Gothic to fill the place of the long a-Examples:—jêr, year, O. H. Germ. jâr; slêpan, to sleep, O. H. Germ. slâfan; mêna, moon, O. H. Germ. mâne; mêl, time, O. H. Germ. mâl; rêus, hope, O. H. Germ. wân: verbs in the preterite plural of the eighth and ninth conjugational classes, nêmum, O. H. Germ. nâmumês: terminational in declensions, dag-ê, of days, dierum.

Very rarely we find the vowel & in the other Teutonic dialects correspond in meaning with the Gothic vowel of the same kind, since, as we have already mentioned, the Gothic & is commonly replaced by & in the other dialects. As rare instances of the Gothic & being preserved in its position we may enumerate in Old High German a few derivative forms, such

as, gé-m, gé-s, gé-t, stêm, stês, stêt, from the roots gâ, stâ of the verbs gân, to go, stân, to stand: in Old Saxon the occasional occurrence of the Gothic ê instead of the typical Old Saxon â, as in jêr instead of jâr, year; wêg instead of wâg, wave (Germ. woge). In Anglo-Saxon also this ê occurs now and then, especially before the consonants m and n instead of the organic u=a; e.g. cwêman, to please; cwên, queen; wên, hope (Goth. gêns, vêns, &c.). Old Frisian has its exceptional examples of the same kind: mêl = mâl, time; wêpen = wâpen, weapon; wêron, they were; jêvon, they gave. That this ê has replaced a more ancient â becomes evident from some later forms, where we find the original â still preserved in the ô of nômon, they took, cepe-

runt, and komon, they came, venerunt.

But the proper sphere of the vowel & is the representation of the diphthong ei (= Gothic ái), which it renders in a condensed form when it occurs before the consonants w, h, and r, and in terminations and inflexions. Thus O. H. Germ. sewes, Goth. wiris, snewes, Goth. snairis, gen. sing. of seo, sea; sneo, snow; zéh, Goth. táih (Germ. zieh, accusavi); léran, Goth. láisjan, to teach; ger, Goth, gairu, spear. The consonant w in the roots we, snew, in the mentioned examples, is vocalized when terminational, and thus in the nominative singular it becomes u, o, or a, and later on it is dropped altogether: e. g. seu, seo, se (Germ. see, sea, lake); sneo, sne (Germ. schnee, snow). Before n the condensed é interchanges with ei, therefore én and ein, one; ben, bein, bone; rarely pedo for peide, both, and escon for eiscon, to ask. In the inflexions & is the characteristic vowel of the third weak conjugation: hapes = Goth. habais; hapet = Goth. habaib; hapéta = Goth. habáida, habes, habet, habui; as in general the Gothic inflexional ái is represented by é in Old High German. The other dialects also yield abundant examples of the condensation of the Gothie ái into é, such as O. S. sé, sea; hém, home; éra, honour; hêl, heal, salvus; éwig (Germ. ewig), eternal; hêtan (Germ. heißen, vocari); flesc, flesh; O. Fris. se, sea; sela, soul; ger, spear; wepen, weapon; teken, token; O. N. knë=knëg and kneig (Germ. neig-te, inclinatus sum); stë=steig (Germ. stieg, scandi); éga=eiga, to have; méri, major; méstr, maximus.

A very characteristic feature chiefly of the Low German dialects is the reduplicational ê. In Old High German too we find occasionally the Gothic reduplication preserved in this contracted form: e.g. fênc for fienc, Goth. faifah, pret. of fahan, to catch; slêfun, Goth. saislép, pret. of slêpan, to sleep; lég for liez, Goth. lailot, pret. of laian, to scold; gêng, Goth.

gaigagg; but the pret. form used in Gothic is iddja and gaggida, pret. of gaggan, to go; O.S. held, pret. of haldan, to hold; hét, pret. of hétan (Germ. heißen, vocari); lét, pret. of látan, to let; A.S. géng, pret. of gangan, to go; lét, pret. of lætan, to let; slép, pret. of slapan, to sleep; féng, pret. of fon = fangan, to catch; heng, pret. of hangan, to hang; het, pret. of hatan, to order; and a few other verbs of a similar form. This preterite  $\hat{e}$  is the condensation of the diphthong  $e\hat{o}$ , as in Old High German of ie, which latter vowel preserved its place in several verbs; in others it is found alternately with  $\hat{e}$ : Old Frisian ble, preterite of bla, to blow, and the preterites het, held, feng, geng, let, which correspond in form and meaning with the same verbs in the other dialects already mentioned; and the list may be completed by adding several forms in Old Norse, such as ket, hélt, fékk, gékk, lét. In all the mentioned dialects the long e is the condensation of diphthongs, as in Old High German of ia, io, ie, in Anglo-Saxon of eó, or the lengthened forms of short vowels caused by the elision of the reduplicational consonants. Similar productions of the radical vowel by elision of the reduplicational consonants and contraction of the vowels are found in the cognate languages, such as the Latin jucio, fēci = fefici.

In a few dialects the long e has a wider range than we have hitherto mentioned. Thus in Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian it is used to indicate the Umlaut of ó, and in the latter dialect even the Umlaut of u, which in Anglo-Saxon is rendered by j-Examples in A.S.:—féran (Germ fahren), to go; wépan, to weep; fét, pl. of fót, foot; méder, pl. of móder, mother; téd, pl. of tód, tooth. O. Fris. Umlaut of ó—féra, wépan, swét, sweet, fét, feet; Umlaut of ú—séle (Germ. säule, pillar); héde, hide, skin.

The long e as the condensation of the Anglo-Saxon eá and the Gothic áu is also met with in Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian, e.g. A. S. néd, Goth. náuþs, need; héran, to hear (Goth. áuso, ear); stépan, to erect, from steáp, high, steep; bég for beáh, ring; dépan, to dip, and deápung, a dipping; and so likewise in O. Fris., néd, need; dépa, to dip, and skéne (Germ. schön, pretty), Goth. skáuns.

Not uncommon in Old Frisian and Old Norse is the condensed form of  $\acute{e}$  for the Gothic diphthong iu=A. S.  $e\acute{o}$ , e. g. O. Fris.  $kn\acute{e}$ , Goth. kniu, knee;  $pr\acute{e}=A$ . S. preon, muscle, and O. N.  $kn\acute{e}$ , knee;  $tr\acute{e}=A$ . S.  $tre\acute{o}$ , tree.

For Gothic ei we find in a few cases é again in O. N., e. g. sé, A. S. and O. H. Germ. sí, sim; vé, Goth. veiks, temple; vél, A. S. wíl, fraud.

Not uncommon is the production of c, or of any short vowel

in fact, by the elision of consonants. Thus we have in O. N. fé (Germ. vieh, pecus, cf. Eng. fee, pecunia), Goth. faihu; sé, video, Goth. saihva; ná, nec, Goth. nih; réttre, right, Goth. raihts; flétta (Germ. flechten, nectere), Goth. flaihtan.

## î

The i has in Old High German and most other dialects replaced the Gothic diphthong ei. Thus O. H. Germ. dri, three; fri, free; huila, time; win, wine; lip, life; zit, time: O. S. thri, fri, huila, win, lif, lid: A. S. hwil, win, lif, tid, wif, wife; tim, time: O. Fris. hwile, time, delay; lif, life; wif, wife; hvit, white; swin, swine: O. N. vin, svin, timi, vif, hvitr, white;—all being nearly identical even to the very words in which they replace by i the Goth. ei in preis, three; freis, free;

teila, time; vein, wine, &c. &c.

Sometimes the long i is the result of production which takes place in cases of elision where i and i meet. Thus we have Old High German pîht (Germ. beicht, confession), from pigiht; chît, dicit, from chidit. More frequent is the inorganic production of short i at the end of words, and even of syllables, before an inflexional vowel or consonant; e. g. in the Goth. preposition bi, apud, O. H. Germ. pî; O. S. bî, O. H. Germ. sî, sis, sî-mes, si-t, sî-n, for the Gothic si-au, si-ais, or sij-au, sij-ais, &c.: and in the same manner fiant, enemy, fiend; friunt, friend; Goth. fig-ands, frij-ands; where we see in Gothic the semi-vowel j introduced in order to preserve the short vowel i which precedes it. A few examples of the same kind we have in the O. N. bî, a bee; sia, to see, Goth. saihvan; i, in; diar = divar, gods. Correption takes place—i. e. the organic i = Goth. ei is replaced by the short i—in some forms of the possessive pronouns, as O.H. Germ mines, dines, mina, dina, sina, by the side of min, din, sin; and O. N. minn, mitt; binn, bitt; sinn, sitt, by the side of min, sin, bin. This correption of the long i also occurs in Old Norse where the termination io of the adj. is assimilated to the neutral termination t: e.g. bliver, polite; neut. blitt.

# ð

This is a long vowel which in Gothic has, together with é, to fill the place of the long a. Examples:  $-\delta gan$ , to dread; dóms, doom; móds, mood, mind, courage; blóma, Germ. blume, bloom, flower; stóls, seat, stool; bróþar, brother; bóka, book.

The Old High German o is the condensation of the diphthong ou, just as & is the condensation of ei; and it has therefore the same relation to the Gothic áu as é has to the Gothic ái. It appears regularly before l, n, r, h, and the linguals s, d, t, z. Examples: - holoht, a ruptured person, herniosus; lon (Germ. lôhn), reward; rốr (Germ. rôhr), reed; kóh, high; trốnt (Germ. trost), consolation; ostard (Germ. Ostern), Easter; tox (Germ. tôd), death; nót (Germ. nôth); need; prót (Germ. brôd), bread; gróz (Germ. grôß), great; plóz (Germ blôß), bare, nude; fró, lord. For this ó one of the Old High German dialects uses the diphthong ao; hence laou, raor, praol, &c., instead of lon, ror, prot, &c. The same dialect which replaces of by ao makes use of the former vowel in the place of the common O. H. Germ. uo =Goth. 6, which the Low German dialects also render by 6. Hence the dialectic for = common O. H. Germ. fuor (Germ. fuhr), ivi; plomo = pluomo (Germ. blume), flower, bloom; hrom = hruom (Germ. ruhm), glory, fame, -forms which are identical with the O.S. for, blomo, hrom. The Low German dialects further agree with Old High German in admitting the o for Gothic áu, which in Old High German was commonly rendered by ou, but then condensed from a diphthong into a single long vowel. The forms fro, lon, hoh, brod, nod, grot, dod, are again therefore identical with the Old High German words which we mentioned above.

The Anglo-Saxon of is identical with the Gothic of throughout. Examples:—bloma, flower, bloom; dom, doom; for, ivit; don, to do; mor, moor; hrof; roof; genoh (Germ. genug), enough; boc, book; blod, blood; flod, flood; fot, foot; broder, brother.

Old Frisian and Old Norse follow the same rule in preserving the original Gothic  $\delta$ . Thus O. Fris.  $d\delta m$ , doom;  $bl\delta ja$ , to bloom;  $br\delta t ker$ , brother;  $b\delta k$ , book; and O. N.  $d\delta mr$ , doom;  $b\delta k$ , book;  $sk\delta gr$ , forest;  $f\delta \delta$ , course. Peculiar to all the Low German dialects is the occasional interchange between  $\delta$  and  $\delta$  which we have already pointed out. Hence O. S. and A. S.  $m\delta na$ , moon,  $s\delta na$ , soon, for  $m\delta na$  and  $s\delta n$ ; O. Fris.  $s\delta n$  and  $s\delta n$ , soon;  $m\delta na$ , moon;  $n\delta m\delta na$ , ceperunt (Germ.  $n\delta na$ );  $k\delta m\delta na$  (Germ.  $n\delta na$ ), venerunt: and in Old Norse it is preferred to  $\delta na$  where an assimilation or elision of consonants has taken place; e.g.  $s\delta fum = sv\delta fum$ , dormivimus;  $s\delta = sva$ , sic;  $\delta n = Goth$ .  $\delta na$   $\delta na$ 

# û

This vowel replaces in Old High German and in the Low German dialects three different Gothic vowels; namely, û, iu, âu. For Gothic û:—O. H. Germ. dûsunt, thousand; rûna, mystery; prût (Germ. braut), bride; prûchan (Germ. brauchen), to use: O. S. rûna, colloquy; brûd, bride; brûcan, to make use of, frui: A. S. rûn, mystery; brûce, utor; rûm, room, space; mûr (Germ. mauer), wall; hûs, house: O. Fris. brûka, uti; hûs, house; fûl, foul; and O. N. fûll, rûn, hûs;—forms which correspond with the û in Gothic fûls, foul; rûms, room; rûna, mystery; hûs, house; brûhs, bride; brûkjan, uti.

For Gothic iu:—O. H. Germ. if, upwards, sursum; lithan, to lock; süfan, to drink (cf. Germ. saufen); sükan (Germ. sauchen), to suck: O. S. üp, sursum; cüsco (M. H. Germ. kiusche), reverenter: A. S. süpe, bibo; O. Fris. früdelf=friudelf, lover; kriose, kris, cross; fliucht, flücht, fugit: O. N. lüka, to look; süga, to

For Gothie áu:—O. H. Germ. púan, to dwell; ka-trú-en (Germ. ver-trau-en), to trust; súl (Germ. säule), column: O. S. búan, súl; clústar for Latin claustrum: O. N. búa, trúa, súl.

The long vowel  $\mathcal{U}$ , where it occurs at the end of a word, is a later production of the Gothic short  $\mathcal{U}$ . Hence this vowel is, even in Old High German and several Low German dialects, often short or at least doubtful. O. H. Germ.  $n\mathcal{U}$ , now, and  $d\mathcal{U}$ , thou, for the earlier  $n\mathcal{U}$  and  $d\mathcal{U}$ , Goth.  $n\mathcal{U}$  and  $p\mathcal{U}$ . The quantity of  $\mathcal{U}$  and thu in Old Saxon is doubtful, whilst in Anglo-Saxon the length of  $n\mathcal{U}$  and  $p\mathcal{U}$  is undoubted. In Old Frisian this vowel is, as in Old Saxon, wavering between short and long, whilst Old Norse gives it undoubted length, since as a rule, in Old Norse all radical vowels suffer production when occurring at the end of a word. Umlaut of  $\mathcal{U}$  occurs in several Low German dialects. The Old High German in its latest documents has occusionally  $\mathcal{U}$  as Umlaut of  $\mathcal{U}$ , thus  $\mathcal{U}$  house, pl. hiuser; chr $\mathcal{U}$ , hereb, pl. chriuter. In Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse the Umlaut of  $\mathcal{U}$  is  $\mathcal{U}$ .

# ŷ

This vowel belongs only to Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse. In Anglo-Saxon it is Umlaut of three vowels:—(1) of \$\vec{u}\$, e.g. \$c\vec{u}\$, cow, pl. \$c\vec{g}\$, kine; \$l\vec{u}s\$, louse, pl. \$l\vec{y}s\$, lice; \$m\vec{u}s\$, mouse, pl. \$m\vec{y}s\$, mice; \$br\vec{u}d\$, bride, pl. \$br\vec{y}d\$: (1) of \$e\vec{o}\$ (Goth iu), e.g. \$l\vec{y}ge\$ (Germ. l\vec{u}ge), a lie; \$cyre\$, election: (3) of \$e\vec{a}\$, e.g. \$h\vec{y}ran\$, to hear; \$gel\vec{y}fan\$,

to believe. In Old Norse g is Umlaut (1) of u, e.g. kyr, pl. of ku, cow; mysla, mus femina; lyk, I lock: (2) of iu, or the weak-

ened form io, e. g. fyr, fire; byr, servant; dyr, animal.

In conclusion of our survey of the long vowels we have to state one more fact which forms a peculiar feature of several Low German dialects, especially Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse, and which consists in the dropping of the consonant a before sibilants, and the lengthening of the short vowel, especially o, which precedes it. Examples:—A. S. 168, O. H. Germ. 2020, tooth; gos, O. H. Germ. kans, goose; soft, O. H. Germ. senfti, soft. Umlaut of ô is ê, têô, gês, sêfte (see above). Analogous forms are, soot, sooth, true; oder, Goth. anhar, other. Examples of other vowels:—swid, strong, Goth. svinbs; fif, five, Goth. fimf'; user, our, Goth. unsar; cube, novit; mub, mouth, Goth. munha. Some grammarians deny however the length of the vowels in the words fif, five; oder, other; too, tooth; cro, notus; mub, mouth. In Old Norse the lengthening of the vowel takes place regularly when the consonant n suffers elision before the sibilant s, not before d. Hence we read gas, goose; ast, favour, (loth. ansis; while madr, man; mud, mouth; ödrum (dat. of annar, other), preserve the short vowel.

Scandinavian grammarians have moreover proposed to assume the lengthening of the vowels a, o, u, before the following combinations of consonants, lm, lp, lf, lg, lk, ls, ng, nk, and of the vowel i before ng and nk. It is however considered doubtful whether the Old Norse dialect really had adopted such distinctions, which after all might be the creation of a later period. At to the letter i the case appears less doubtful; but the production of a and o is considered very rare before consonantal combinations with an l, especially in the 'Ablaut,' whence forms like skalf, skolfinn, svalg, svolginn, preserve the short a and o. The Umlaut of a before ng and nk is e or o, both of which are short

vowels and must correspond with  $\ddot{a}$ , not with  $\dot{a}$ .

As a rule German grammarians mark the length of a vowel in all the different dialects by the sign  $\wedge$ ; but some have, in publishing Old Norse and Anglo-Saxon documents, occasionally adopted the mode of Scandinavian and English grammarians, according to which the length is marked by the acute ('). The student will therefore read  $t\delta = t\delta \delta$ ;  $m\delta = m\delta \delta$ .

#### DIPHTHONGS.

## ái

In Gothie this diphthong occurs rather frequently. Examples:
—sáivs, sea, lake; snáivs, snow; sáivala, soul; dáils, deal, part;
háima, home, village; áins, one; stáins, stone; bái, both; háihs,
blind, caecus; háils, heal, whole; báitrs, bitter. Always in the
reduplication of the verb. Thus sái-salt, skái-skáid, stái-staut,
sái-slép, lái-ló, tái-tók, are the reduplicated preterita of the verbs
saltan, to salt; skáidan, to separate (Germ. scheiden); stautan,
to push, beat (Germ. stôßen); slépan, to sleep; láian, to scold;
tékan, to touch. This Gothic ái is in the other dialects generally
rendered by ei or its condensation é and í (vide sub litt. ei, ê, î).

## ei

This diphthong in its organic nature is met with only in Gothic, Old High German, and Old Norse. In these dialects however it has different tasks to perform. The Gothic ei is commonly replaced in Old High German and Old Norse by the long vowel while the diphthong ei in the latter dialects stands for Gothic ei. Examples of Gothic ei:—eisarn, iron; reisan, to rise; tveifls, doubt (Germ. zweifel); svein, swine, pig; vein, wine; meins, beins, seins (Germ. mein, dein, sein); compare O. H. Germ. isaru, risan, zuival, suuin, win, min, din, sin. It further occurs in Gothic as the termination of substantives of the weak declension, e. g. áiþei, mother; svinþei, strength.

The Old High German ei in heim, home; stein, stone; ein, one; heil, heal, whole; eigan, to own; fleisc, flesh; and the Old Norse ei in eitre, poison, venom (Germ. eiter); eir, iron; breidr, broad; heill, heal; eiga, to own,—correspond with the Gothic ái as we have already mentioned. In Old High German and Old Norse we find the diphthong also in the preterites of the verbs of the fifth class, e.g. dreif, pepuli; hrein, clamavi; beit,

momordi; reis, surrexi.

Concerning the condensation of ei into é we refer to what we have stated sub lit. ê. The other dialects offer hardly any traces of the diphthong ei in its organic nature, that is, coinciding with the Gothic ái; but Old Frisian has abundant examples of an inorganic ei. Thus we find ei originating in contraction of the terminations eg and ag, e.g. wei, way; dei, day; slei, blow; but pl. wegar, degar, where the consonant reappears. As

the contraction of  $\acute{e}g$  we meet it in  $ein = \acute{e}gin$ , own, propring;  $heia = h\acute{e}ga$ , tollere.  $ei = \acute{e}$  in deil, for del, dale; weisa = weia, to be;  $ei = \acute{u}$ , iu, ou; hei = O. H. Germ. hou, a blow; beile = O. H. Germ. biule, a tumor (Germ. beule); breid = O. H. Germ. pril, bride, spouse. In a few words introduced from Old High German the Old Frisian ei is identical with the same diphthong in Old High German, such as keisar, emperor; leia, layman.

### iu

This is the only Gothic diphthong which is rendered in its pure and original sound in other dialects as well, though most of them also allow of a weakened form, and Anglo-Saxon replaces it by an altogether different diphthong, namely & Examples:—Gothic triu, tree; kniu, knee; niujis, new; jiules,

July; bingan, to bend (Germ. biegen); iup, sursum.

Old High German in coincides with the same diphthong in Gothic, but it is occasionally replaced by dor the weakened in The latter stands to in in the same relation as does the vowel to u, and consequently it occurs under the same conditions namely, when the following syllable contains the vowel a, while i or u in the succeeding syllable preserve the pure diphthong is The same rule holds good for monosyllables which form the theme in a, i, or u, as well as for the conjugation of the verb Hence we have the forms kingu, fundo; king-is, kingit, kiozamés, kiozant; imp. kiuz; inf. kiozan. So also in the declensions and derivatives of words, as diota, people; diutisk, popular, vernscular, hence Deutsch, German; lioht, light; liuhtjan, to lighten (Germ. leuchten, splendere). The plurals diopa, etiora, or niuni, liuti, explain forms such as diop, thief; stior, bull (Germ. stier), or ninn, lint, people. Fior, four, Goth. fidvor, has formed the diphthong by the elision of consonants, in the same manner as diorna, ancilla, puella (Germ. dirne).

As to the use of the weakened form of iu, the Old High German documents differ vastly, so that from the original pure diphthong iu we see them pass through the whole scale of vowels, iu and eu, io and  $\ddot{e}o$ , ia and  $\ddot{e}a$ , and finally ie. This variation of sounds is partly owing to dialectic differences, partly to the rapid wearing down of full-sounding vowels, which we observe

towards the close of the Old High German period.

Otfrid, where he makes use of 'Schwächung,' chooses io for monosyllabic words: in polysyllables he yields to the influence of assimilation; so that he prefers io where the following syllable contains an o, ia or, rarely, ie, where a high-pitched vowel such

Therefore zioro, thiononti, and ziari, liabe, liebes. But monosyllabic nouns, though they assume a high vowel in the inflexion, nevertheless retain their io, hence thiole, liables; except ie in liedes, carminis. Later authors, from the time of Tatian, and especially Notker, flatten the io still further into ie. The ia however is peculiar to Otfrid. The more ancient authors down as far as Isidor have a diphthong ëu for in in ancient proper names, nouns, and pronouns, e.g. ëu, vobis; exih, vos; hrëunun, poenitentiam, for iu, iuwih, hriunun. Kero and Isidor have ëo and ëa for io in the inflexions, as waldend-ëo, min-ëu; ni sometimes instead of iu. There occurs another ia or ëu in Kero and Otfrid which corresponds with Goth. é, not iu; e.g. mias, meas, table, Goth. més; hiar, here, Goth. hér.

With this one exception all the vowels mentioned are weakened forms of in. There is however another diphthong ia (Otfrid), in (Kero, Isidor), or ie (Tatian, Notker), which has its origin in the condensation or contraction of a more ancient reduplication. Thus hialt, hëalt, pret. of haltan; blias, blëas, blies, pret. of blasan. The original reduplication still shows itself unmistakeably in a form heialt, used by Kero instead of hialt, and which closely approaches the Gothic haihald, pret. of haldan. The diphthong io we find in the preterite of those verbs which have in the present the radical vowel ou, o, or uo; e.g. loufu, pret. llof (Goth. hlaupan), pret. hlaihlaup; stozu, stioz; wuofu, wiof.

In Old Saxon the relation between in and io is the same as in Old High German, and the same rules are applicable as to the use of io where a, and of in where i or n follow in the next syllable. Thus in the conjugation bindu, offer; bindis, bindit; pl. biodat; inf. biodan. So also in other words: hindu, hodie (Germ. heute); thinstri, darkness; thiodan, king; thiorna, ancilla (Germ. dirne). Sometimes the distinction of in and io denotes words of a different meaning, e.g. thin, ancilla; thio, instrum. of the; finr, fire; fior, four; and occasionally one and the same word wavers between in and io, e.g. finnd, fiond, memy, fiend; diubul, diobol, diabolus. The weakened eo appears not unfrequently for io: theof, thief; breost, breast; theodan, king. ie, ia, ea are rare: kiesan, to choose (Germ. kiesen); therma, ancilla; liaht, light.

These vowels are in Old Saxon as in Old High German used also to indicate ancient reduplication. Thus ie by the side of in the preterite of those verbs which have an d in the present—het for let, pret. of latan, to let; and ried for and red, pret. of and radan, to dread, io, eo, or ie in the pret. of those verbs which have of in the present—hliop, hliep, pret. of hlopan, to

run (Germ. laufen); wiop, weop, wiep, pret. of wopan, to weep.

Concerning the reduplication in &, vide sub lit. ê.

Old Frisian is, like Old Saxon, restricted to the sole diphthong iu, of which it also admits the weakened form in io, ia; so that iu and io are met where the following syllable contains, or originally contained, i or u, and ia where it contains a. Examples:—hiudega, hodie; friund, friend; niugun, nine; siugun, seven; and diore, dear; fiower, four; liode, people; stiora, to steer. Some words waver between iu and io, as fiur and fior, fire; diure and diore, dear; liude and liode, people (Germ. leute): iu at the end of words, e.g. thriu, three; hiu, ea; thiu, illa; but diar, deer, fera; siak, sick; thiade, people; kriapa, to creep;

liaht, light.

Old Norse also uses the diphthong in as identical with Gothic At the end of words: -niu, nine; tiu, ten; priu, three. Before labials or gutturals :- diupr, deep; biugr, curved; hrinft, sad; rinka, to smoke, reek; except biofr, thief. The weakened form io is used before liquids and dentals :- bior, beer ; fliot, river (Germ. fluß); hiol, wheel; kiosa, to choose (Germ. kiesen). Some words however even here preserve in: examples—tiurr, taurus (Germ. stier); niundi, nonus; tiundi, decimus. As a rule, then, in Old Norse, the use of the pure diphthong in, or its weakened form io, does not, as in Old High German, depend on the vowel of the following syllable, but on the nature of the succeeding The conjugation of the verb does not, as in other dialects, present an alternation between in and io, simply because both these diphthongs are in the singular present of the verb replaced by their common Umlaut g. io also makes occasionally its appearance in the remains of an ancient reduplication; examples—anda, gignere, pret. iod; ansa, to draw, haurire, pretios; bua, to dwell, pret. bio; hlaupa, to run (Germ. laufen), prethliop (Germ. lief). On the reduplication in e vide sub lit. ê.

# eó

This diphthong may be considered as exclusively Anglo-Saxon, and stands to the Gothic iu in the same relation as the Old High German ei, for instance, does to the Gothic ái. It therefore must by no means be regarded as identical with ëo, or any other Schwächung of iu which may occur in the other dialects, but as an independent vowel which in Anglo-Saxon replaces the Gothic iu without being a mere Schwächung of this diphthong. In this character it chiefly occurs in the middle of a word: examples—beór, beer; beón, to be; deór, deer, fera; ceól,

eel, ship; ceósan, to choose; deóp, deep; leód, people; leóht, ght. This eó was in later times often replaced by il, especially a verbs of the sixth class: supan for seópan, to drink; sucan or seócan, to suck; lucan for leócan, to lock. More about this i vide sub. lit. û.

This diphthong we find in various other places where it has no relation to the Gothic iu. It very often appears as the Brechung of i, which has its origin in a mistaken analogy to the Brechung of i into eo before the consonants h and v. Hence the verbs wrihan, to cover; tihan, to amuse; pihan, to thrive, have been removed into the sixth conjugational class, and thus throwing off the h, they appear as wreón, teón, peón, pret. wreáh, teáh, peáh. Of similar formation is feól, file, O. H. Germ. fhila, fila.

At the end of a word where j has been dropped, i is replaced by e6: examples—be6, bee, O. H. Germ. bi; fre6, free, Goth. freis, O. H. Germ. fri. It appears that a final i is repugnant to the nature of the Anglo-Saxon idiom; wherever, therefore, the i is preserved in preference of e6, it is under the shelter of a following consonant, e.g. frih, frig,=fre6; sig, sim, for se6; hig

for heb.

So also we see e6 occur where i is followed by w, e.g. sne6wan, to go, Goth. snivan; cne6w, cneowes, Goth. kniu, knivis, knee; bre6w, tree, &c. The ancient forms are cne6 and tre6, where e6 appears in its organic character as the representative of the

Gothic in in knin, triu.

Similar to io and ie in other dialects, eó is in Anglo-Saxon the contraction of the ancient reduplication which is more commonly represented by the condensed vowel é (vide sub lit. ê): examples—geóng, ivi (Germ. gieng); beón, jussi; speón, junxi; dreód, timui; reórd, rexi; leólc, lusi; leórt, sivi: gangan, bannan, pannan, drædan, rædan, læcan, lætan, occasionally form their preterites by eó instead of the more common é.

# áu

Gothic. Examples:—báuan, to dwell; sáuil, sun; fráuja, lord; láubs, leaf (Germ. laub); galáubjan, to believe (Germ. glauben); hláupan, to run (Germ. laufen); áugo, eye (Germ. auge); áuso, ear; hlauts, lot, fate.

We have seen before how j is transformed into i, v into u, vide sub. lit. u. In the same manner ij, iv, av are transformed into ei, iu, au when they occur at the end of a word or precede

a consonant. Examples:—eis, ija, ijé; freis, frijis, frija; pius, pivis, piva; naus, navis, in which the roots ij, frij, piv, nav, before the consonantal termination s of the nominative, adopt the corresponding diphthongs ei, iu, au. Between aj and di such relation does not exist except in the words bái, both, bajops; vái, væ, vajaméreins, contumely; but we find sáian, to sow; láian, to smile; not sajan, lajan. The forms av and iv are also vocalized into iu and au before the inflexional consonant j; where however this consonant itself is vocalized into i, the mentioned diphthongs are again dissolved into iv and av. Hence the nominative mavi of the theme máuja, piva of páuja, and the preterite tavida of táujan, to do (root tav).

Among other dialects Old Norse alone has preserved the integrity of the Gothic diphthong áu. Examples:—draum, dream; baun, bean; daufr, deaf; lauf, leaf; hlauf, a run (Germ. lauf); auga, eye (Germ. auge); glaumr, clamour, noise. ô for au, vide sub lit. ô. Very rare is â for au, as hâr, high, for hauhs. In fâr, few, and strâ, straw, we have the regular productions of the terminational à. Goth. fâus; theme, fava; also

stravi, O. H. Germ. strő.

Old High German in its most ancient documents has also the Gothic au instead of the later ou; but as a rule we shall have to look upon ou as the Old High German representative of the Gothic au.

Anglo-Saxon has a vowel of its own, the diphthong eá taking

the place of the Gothic au.

Old Frisian has a diphthong au, which however is not the organic vowel representing the Gothic áu, but an inorganic diphthong originating in the contraction of âw, as naut nawet, naught; auder, uter (=ahwedder); nauder, neque (=nahwedder).

#### ou

This is the Old High German representative of the Gothic áu. Examples:—poum, tree (Germ. baum); troum, dream (Germ. traum); houbit, head (Germ. haupt); gilouba, faith (Germ. glaube); louf, a run (Germ. lauf); ouga, eye (Germ. auge).

This diphthong is however often encroached upon by the vowel ô, into which it is contracted (ô for ou, vide sub lit. ô); but the diphthong is invariably preserved before the liquid m, before labials and gutturals. Sometimes it is rendered by a Schwächung in ao, oi, eu; these forms however are mere dialectic variations, and of very rare occurrence.

Isidor, one of the Old High German authors, has an Umlaut an in en. Examples:—freuwidha, joy; freuwidih, laetare; ille other documents have frauwit, he rejoices; frauwi, laetare.

### eá

This is the characteristic diphthong of Anglo-Saxon, which has to represent the Gothic án. Examples:—at the end of words = O. H. Germ. 6 or on: freá, lord; feá, few. By the elision of the terminational k, e. g. heá = heak, high; eá, water; Goth. ahva, O. H. Germ. aha; neá, near. This diphthong is very common before the liquids m and n. Examples:—beám, beam; gleám, gleam; seám, seam; steám, steam; streám, stream; teám, team; teán, bean. Before the liquid r only in eáre, ear, Goth. áusó; teár, a tear; dreárung, a distilling. Before the liquid l, no cumples. Preceding other letters: deáf, deaf; heáfod, head; leáf, leaf; heáp, heap; sleáp, sleep; eáge, eye; breád, bread; leád, dead; leád, lead; neád, need.

Whilst in Gothic and Old High German the terminal v joining a is vocalized, and forms the diphthong au, it has in Anglo-Saxon a tendency to regain its position after the vocalization has taken place. Thus then a root dav would be Goth. dau, and Goth. dau again A. S. deau: the consonant v however turns up again in its old position and urges upon us the form deauv, dew; so also breauv, eye-brow; feauva, few, Goth. favai; heavan, to hew, O. H. Germ. havan, hauvan. Sometimes eauvan is contracted in euvan: euvan

#### uo

This diphthong is peculiar to Old High German, in which it represents a dissolution of a more ancient  $\delta$  into the double vowel or diphthong uo. Examples:—fuoran = foran; tuom =  $l\delta m$ ; pluomo =  $pl\delta m$ ; tuon =  $t\delta n$ , &c.

In the inflexions  $\delta$  is preserved throughout. One Old High German dialect, which inclines to the Low German, prefers the  $\delta$ , even in roots, to the common Old High German uo: oa for uo is scarce; ua for uo, where we meet also ia,  $\ddot{e}a$ , for iu.

#### ey

Belongs to Old Norse exclusively as Umlaut of au: freyr, Goth. fráuja, lord; hey, Goth. havi, hay; dreyma, to dream,

Sometimes ey for oe: beyki, beech (=boeki), Goth. from drauma. bôka; deya, to die; geya, to rejoice; Umlaut of an, pret. de and gô.

### II. MIDDLE TEUTONIC.

SHORT VOWELS.

8

Middle High German. Examples:—al, all; gal, sound; saltegal, nightingale; mal, I grind, molo; swal, swallow; tal, valley, dale; bar, naked, bare; spar, I spare; hammer; scham, shame; han, cock; man, man; maget, maid; zagel, tail; tac, day; ahe, water; trahen, tear; blat, leaf; vater, father;

gras, grass.

Examples of the pure a sound are very numerous, deviations of this sound into that of any other vowel very rare; they occur in almost the identical words which show a fluctuation of sound in Old High German already. Thus har = her, hither; wal=wol, well; sal=sol, shall; van=von, prefix de, ab;  $mak^{le}$ = mohte, might; kam = kom, came.  $\ddot{a}$  is used in the place of  $\ell$ . especially where the latter is Umlaut of a: thus schämlick, adj of scham, shame; zäglich, adj. of zage, coward; schädelich, adjschade, damage. More about this Umlaut sub lit. e.

Old and Middle English. The Anglo-Saxon a in late Saxon retained its position before syllables with a full vowel, and before m and n, in which latter case it fluctuates into o. Hence we have fram and from; lang, long; man, mon; occasionally with a preluding e, heond, leond, &c. The Ablaut of the first strong conjugation is commonly o: bond, bound; wond, wound; dronc, drank; sprong, sprang; stong, stung; more rarely a, swang, sprang; others have always a to the exclusion of o, hannd, lannd, mann, cann. Old English and Middle English keep up the fluctuation of sound before m and n, e.g. man, mon; hand, hond; sprang, sprong.

Another source of the Middle English a is the Anglo-Saxon  $\ddot{a}$ . In late Saxon some writers choose a representative in  $\ddot{a}$  (a), a, e, even ea, whilst others strictly adhere to the vowel a. Thus we find brec, brac, breac, broke; spac, spec, spac, spoke; qued, quad, said, quoth; what, whät, whet; craft, craft; gras, gras. Old English renders the æ commonly by a, rarely by e, as stal, bare, brak, spak, or stel, ber, brec, spec; smal, fader, bat,

water; and in the same manner Middle English has what, craft,

gras, raven.

The third a derives its origin from the A. S. ea, the Brechung of Gothic a, before the consonants l, r, and h. Even the late Saxon authors reduce the ea to a, as al, A.S. eall; wal, A.S. weal; ale, A. S. eale; salt, warm. Sometimes the sound is wavering between a, a, and e: heard, hard, hard, herd; teares, teres, tears. The Ablauts in the eighth and tenth conjugations fluctuate between a, ä, and e. Some words even incline to o: halde, hälden, holde; äld, old; salde, sälde, solde. These fluctuations become gradually less frequent in Old English until all the different sounds settled down in a: al, alle, halle; walle, falle; the Ablaut in the tenth conjugation : halp, help; dalf, faght; sagh, saw, sau. Exceptions: -old, holden, bold. So also in Middle English a has the preference, e.g. alle, fullen, halle, sharp, harde, harm, arm; and the Ablaut in the tenth conjugation Jaught, faght, half, dalf. The Umlaut of a is as in Anglo-Saxon, though it is in the later Saxon occasionally written a, e.g. hate, hate, hate; mate, mat, meat; tallen, tällen, to tell. In Old and Middle English again, the vowel e is firmly established, e. g. hen, Jen, men, helle, net, bet, eft, bench, mete, sellen, letten, wenden.

## ĕ

Middle High German. The vowel e is by Grimm distinguished into two sounds, one thinner and softer as Umlaut of a, and the other marked ë of a fuller and broader sound as Brechung of . The fact of a difference really existing in the nature of these sounds the same authority proves from the rhymes in Middle High German poetry, where in good classical productions we hardly ever find e the Umlaut of a rhyming upon  $\ddot{e}$ the Brechung of i. Examples of e as Umlaut of a:-her, army; beete, bed; helle, hell; herte, hard-here the Umlaut is owing to the inflexional i which has been dropped-rede, speech; escl, ass; glesin, vitreus; elle, ellin, omnia; swellen, to inflate; brennen, to burn; henne, hen; steppe, step. The vowel a and its Umlaut e, by their frequent exchange, give the inflexional forms a diversified and pleasing modulation. Thus we find often a in the singular of the substantive declension replaced by e in the plural, e.g. gast, guest, pl. geste; blat, leaf, pl. bleter. Feminine nouns of the second declension preserve a in the nom. and acc. sing., but in the gen. and dat. they already replace it by its Umlaut e, e.g. krafte, krefte, strength; hand, hende, hand. The present of the first weak conjugation yields to the

Umlaut e, whilst the preterite often preserves the original e. e. g. vellen, to fell; wenden, to turn; pret. valte, wande. An interesting contrast is produced by the Umlaut occurring in the adjective, and the original a in the adverbial form, as kerle, hard; harte, hardly; feste, firm; fuste, firmly. The Umlaut of a has been generally adopted in monosyllabic and bisyllabic words from the thirteenth century, so that we never find har for her, army; narn for nern, to preserve; angel for engel, angel.

Thus then we have the Umlaut of a represented by two different letters,  $\ddot{a}$  and e; and what, might be the question, the meaning of these different signs? It appears that, as far as the intrinsic value of each of these letters or sounds is concerned, they are identical. We therefore find the words which we have enumerated above under the Umlaut a quite as often rendered by the Umlaut e, so that schämlich and schemisch, zäglich and zeglich, schädelich and schedelich were used without discrimination. If there be any difference at all, it would seem to lie in this, that a is used in derivations which were still traceable to their roots, as schämlich to scham, zaglich to zage, schädelich to schade; while the vowel e renders that Umlau which owes its origin to a more ancient modification, such as her, from O. H. Germ. hari, where the modifying vowel was dropped in the course of time, but the Umlaut kept it place, though the Middle High German author may not have been so conscious of the relation between her and O. H. Germ hari as he was of that between schade and schädelich: ä ther is the more modern, e the more ancient Umlaut. More about this distinction under the chapter of modern German vowels. ë, the result of Brechung. In the inflexions we meet this i chiefly in the plur. pres. ind., and sing. and plur. pres. subj. of several strong verbs; in the substantives of the first strong declension; and, in general, in all those words which have at inflexional a after the radical vowel i. Thus then in inflexion and derivations  $\ddot{e}$  exchanges with i in the same manner as with a; hence berc, gebirge; velt, gevilde; gerste, girstin; win wëmen; wirbe, wërben. Compare Old High German ë and i.

The distinction of e and  $\ddot{e}$  is of great importance, since solel by its means we are enabled to keep distinct many words which have the same spelling but a different meaning; e.g. ber, berry bër, a bear; her, army; hër, hither; helle (Germ. hölle), hëld (Germ. helle); velt, cadit, vëlt, ager; sterben, caedere, to kill stërben, cadere, to die; nebelîn, diminutive of nabele, umbilicus nëbelîn, diminutive of nëbel, nebula. But in spite of all thee facts which speak in favour of a distinction between e and ë,

cannot be denied that their sounds even in refined utterance cannot have differed much, since even the most refined poets of

the classical period make e and  $\ddot{e}$  rhyme occasionally.

Old and Middle English. The Anglo-Saxon  $\ddot{e}$ , Schwächung of i, is retained in late Saxon, though subject to many fluctuations. Examples:—he, me, pe, beren, breken; stelen and steolen; self and reolf. Nay, this unsettled fluctuating state of things goes so far as to extinguish all difference between  $\ddot{e}$  the Schwächung of  $\ddot{e}$ , and e the Umlaut of a, and consequently the letter a ( $=\ddot{a}$ ) is often used for both indiscriminately. Hence delnen, dälfen; eten, äten; helm, hälm; or both  $\ddot{a}$  and eo are substituted for  $\ddot{e}$ : helpen, hälpen, heolpen. Old English again displays a more settled state of things, and the sound is, as of yore, represented by its legitimate e (rarely i). Middle English already shows a tendency of lengthening the short vowel e into e (=ee), wee, thee, yee, tere and teer, breke and breek.

### i

Middle High German. This vowel is used to the same extent as in Old High German, and consequently appears in the nominative of the second and third declensions in the sing. pres. of strong verbs which exchange e and i, and finally in derivations which originally had the vowel i or u. Examples :- sil, rope (Germ. seil); spil, play (Germ. spiel); vil, much; himel, heaven; bin, sum; bin, a bee; hin, illue; zin, tin; siben, seven; sige, victory (Germ. sieg); michel, great; strich, a line; smit, smith; diz, this; siz, seat; wil, I will; wim, I take; bir, I bear; gibe, I give; briche, I break; sihe, I see; sing. pres. of wellen, nemen, beren, geben, brechen, sehen. The vowel i is, however, very limited In the conjugation. Since ë rules throughout the pres. subj. as well as in the pl. of the pres. indic., the relation between i and ë In the Middle High German is most readily explained by a reference to Old High German, where an a in the following syllable modifies, i or u preserves, the preceding i. Thus nëbel, ëben, degen, regen, zehen, swester = O. H. Germ. nebal, epan, dekan, rekan, zëhan, suestar; and himel, michel, birke, kirche = O. H. Germ. himil, michil, piricha, chiricha; and siben, sicher, videle, witewe= O. H. Germ. sibun, seven; sichur, safe; fidula, fiddle; wituwa, widow. The i in all adjectives in in or ic is easily explained; as, girstin, adj. of gërste, barley; villin, adj. of vël, skin: and the rule which has been laid down will quite as easily explain the exchange of i and  $\ddot{e}$  in the conjugational forms; e.g. pres. sing. bir, birst, birt; plur. bërn, bërt, bërnt, = O. H. Germ. piru, piris, pirit, përam, përat, përant. Singular it is to find i commonly preceding the consonants z and tz, and many doubled consonants. apparently for no other reason but the terminational i which has been dropped in the course of time; e. g. spiz, viirwiz, = O. H. Germ. spizi, furiwizi. Several monosyllables of frequent occurrence in daily speech have escaped all modifying influences and preserved the i intact, e.g. ich, mich, dich, vich, mir, dir, bin, bist, ist, in (eum, eis and prep.), min, minus, &c.; er and ez (Goth. is and ita) yielded to the general decline, but ir (Goth. izős, izái, izé, iző) pron. possess. has retained its distinctive i. Though Grimm is fond of calling the modification of i into e 'a Brechung,' he at the same time acknowledges that Gothic differs from Middle as well as Old High German Brechung in its essential characteristics, the former changing i into ai under the influence of succeeding consonants (r and h), the latter under the influence of succeeding vowels. Being unable to discern any benefit resulting from an adhesion to scientific distinctions which are no longer outborne by facts, we may perhaps discard the term of Brechung for the Middle as well as Old High German e, which we consider in all cases as a mere Trübung or Schwächung of the original vowel i.

Old and Middle English. The Anglo-Saxon eo is rarely retained in the succeeding periods, but late Saxon often replaces it by e. Examples:—heart, hart; hearte, heart; feole, fele, many (Germ. vide); seoluer, selver, silver; sweard, swerd, sword; earde, earde, earth; heovene, heaven, heaven. Or by o: weoruld, woreld, world; steorre, sterre, storre, star. In Old and Middle English the Anglo-Saxon ëo is commonly represented by e: hert, hart; herte, heart; swerd, erl, heven, erthe, fele, selfe;—rarely by o: work, world, even hor, earn; hour, iis. A few words return to the original vowel i, which even in Anglo-Saxon speech had already been split into ë and eo; and we therefore meet with silver and milk for the Anglo-Saxon seolver and meole. In this instance it may indeed be argued with great plausibility that Anglo-Saxon too allowed the more ancient forms silver, mile, by the side of the later breaking in seolver and meole.

#### 0

Middle High German. Analogous to the Old High German &. Examples:—hol, a hole; ole, oil; vol, full; wol, well; honec, honey; kone, wife; bischof, bishop; oven, oven, furnace; vogel, bird; herzoge, duke; stock, stick (Germ. stock); joch, yoke; koch, cook; worm and wurm, worm; horn, horn; corn, corn; dorf.

village; sorge, care; gebrochen, broken; gekrochen, crept, reptus. This o derives its origin sometimes from a, sometimes from u, of which vowels it is merely a Schwächung or Trübung. Hence sol = scal, shall; holn = haln, to fetch; kom = kam, von = van, mohte = mahte, might (Germ. mochte, potui). More common is o as the Schwächung of u, to which class most of the examples which we have given belong: o for ë in wol, for wela, well; woche for wecha, week; kone for quëna, wife; komen for quëman, to

come; koden for quedan, to say (cf. quoth).

The Umlaut of o is ö. This Umlaut however is of rare occurrence; a fact which may be demonstrated a priori when we consider that the vowel o, of which it is the modification, replaces the original u, then only when it is not followed by i, the vowel which chiefly causes the Umlaut in the root. It is still more interesting to observe that, wherever Umlaut of o does occur, it is not this o which is modified, but the original u for which it stands. Thus then we find by the side of tor, door; vor, prae, fore; tür and vür, not tör and vör-because in Old High German already the organic u is sheltered by the i in turi and furi. In the same manner we shall easily explain the Umlaut ii in the words bückin, dürnin, güldin, hülzin, adjectives of boc, he-goat; dorn, thorn; wolle, wool; golt, gold; holz, mood; and by the side of the Participles geworfen, geborgen, the subjunctives würfe, bürge, which are modified forms of the pl. indic. wurfen, burgen, infin. werfen, to th row; bergen, to hide. Exceptional cases are the following :-Ald High German nouns passing from the first to the second declension sometimes assumed the plurals in i instead of a, hence Procchi, frosci for poccha, frosca, he-goats, frogs; whence Middle igh German plurals, such as böcke, frösche, stöcke, röcke, by the e of the formation of the first declension, bocke, frosche, &c. Old High German already we find words fluctuating in the ural between o and u, e.g. luchir and lochir, hulir and holir, hich explain the Middle High German plurals löcher, höler, ter. &c. Old High German diminutives fluctuating in the same manner, are luchili and lochili, puchili and pochili, whence the I. H. Germ. löchelín, böckelín, röckelín, not lüchelin, &c.

As to the further development of this Umlaut we have only observe that it took place in the same way as that of a into e, amely, under the influence of a succeeding i: thus then we find parallel to semelich, similar; gremelich, irascible—O. H. Germ. samalih, gramalih—the forms götelich, divine; löbelich, laudable—O. H. Germ. gotalih, lopalih. The weak preterites dorfte, mohte, tohte, have in the subjunctive dörfte, möhte, töhte; solde and

wolde remain unchanged in the subjunctive.

Old and Middle English. The every often takes the place of an original a, as it sometimes did in Anglo-Saxon already. Thus Mid. Eng. mon, loud, hond, tond, strond, for man, lamb, &c.; exceptionally for A.S. eo, as in world, work; for A.S. w-fol, dore, worm, wonder, &c.

#### u

Middle High German. Examples:—gume, man; bruitgum, bridegroom (Germ. brautigam); stumb, dumb; sumer, summer; orum, pious (Germ. fromm); duner, thunder; kulde, favour; schulde, guilt, debt; srurm, worm; furn, tower; sourz, wort, herb; wurzel, root; kunst, art; luft, air; cuks, fox; kum, venio. Pl. pret. of strong verbs: achaben, trusimus; kluben, fidimus; lugen, mentiti sumus; trugen, fefellimus; tlugen, volavimus.

\* bears the same relation to o as does i to \(\bar{e}\). As a rule the original vowels u and i exclude their respective intruders o and from any hold upon their position before consonantal combinations, such as mm, nn, mb, mpf, ng, nk, nd, nz, ns; the liquids m and n, fortified by another succeeding consonant affording, it would appear, sufficient shelter to the original vowels i and s. Where the position is open to both competitors, the original vowel a always depends on a succeeding a or i for its safety, while a succeeding a is sure to bring in the intruder o. Thus the pl. pret. kluben, bugen, tugen, we explain by the O. H. Germ. chlupun, pugun, tugun; and the o in honec, oven, tohter, by the O. H. Germ. honac, oran, tohtar.

is the Umlaut of a brought about by a terminational i. Examples:—hül, hole, O. H. Germ. huli; vül, puledrus, O. H. Germ. fuli; kür, election, O. H. Germ. churi; tür, door. O. H. Germ. turi; vür, fore, prae, O. H. Germ. furi; müneck, monk, O. H. Germ. munih; hübesch, courteous, pretty; übel, evil, O. H. Germ. ubil. (To these examples may be added those quoted sub

lit. Ö.)

Considering that the radical vowel u is exposed to the modifying influences of both a and i, and that a terminational u (which again is scarcer than terminational i) alone can save the position of its twin brother in the root, we shall have no difficulty in explaining the preponderance of the Umlant # over the original vowel u—a preponderance which would be still greater if it were not for certain consonantal combinations which reject the Umlaut; as for instance, ld, lt, ng, nh, so that the forms schulde, hulde, schuldic, guldin, are preferred to schülde, hülde, schüldic, güldin.

From these exceptional cases it becomes sufficiently evident that the Umlaut of u had pervaded far less generally the vocal

rstem of the Middle High German language than the Umlaut fa had done; that \(\vec{u}\) is a vowel unknown in Old High German; and that by degrees it developed itself in Middle High German in the same manner as \(e^{\text{the Umlaut of }a^{\text{had done}}\) had done in Old High German. Where in Old High German there still remained a fluctuation between the Umlaut \(e^{\text{and}}\) its original \(a^{\text{high German}}\) decides in favour of the former; and so again Modern High German adopts the Umlaut \(\vec{u}^{\text{high German}}\) where Middle High German was still wavering between the vowel \(u^{\text{and its}}\) umlaut \(\vec{u}^{\text{high German}}\) Grimm places the first transitions from \(u^{\text{into u}}\) into \(\vec{u}^{\text{into u}}\) in

the eleventh or twelfth century.

Old and Middle English. The Old English u is to a great extent identical with the same letter in Anglo-Saxon. Examples: -sum, sunne, tunge, wulf, sunde, sound, healthy (Germ. gesund); but it is not unfrequently replaced by o, rarely ou; somer = sumer, dombe = dumbe, sone = sune, son; nonne = nunne, folle = fulle, worm = wurm, doust = dust. The pl. Ablaut in the tenth conjugation is often o, sometimes u. Old English reduces the number of u vowels and commonly supersedes them by o or ou; whence fol=ful, dore=dure, som = sum, borgh and bourgh=burgh; and Middle English makes a kind of compromise between the conflicting elements of sound by engaging in some words the vowel u, in others o, to the exclusion of the rival vowel. We therefore read ful, hungre, under, schuldre, lust, dust, and worm, wonder, dore, note, nonne. Still open to the competition of the rivals are sune, sone, son; sunne, sonne, sun; sume, some.

The Anglo-Saxon u which, under the influence of a preceding w, was developed from the vowel i, either retains it place, interchanging sometimes with o, as cumen, comen; wude, wode; suster, soster; pus, pos; or it is reduced to the original vowel i; as, quike, widewe, widow; wike, week. The fluctuation continues in Old and Middle English; we therefore read, woke, wuke, wyke; to cume, to come; wude, wode, wood; whilk, wuch, wich; swilk,

sulk, such.

### у

Middle High German. This vowel is not German, and has therefore in Middle High German no better position than in Old High German. It is looked upon as a foreigner, and solely admitted in words of the Latin and Romance languages. Examples:—Tyturel, Gynovêr. German words too which had been Romanized and re-admitted into German literature allowed of the vowel y. Examples:—Tybalt=Dietbalt, Ysengrim=Isengrim. Its sound was no doubt like that of i, though occasionally it

may, in French words, have had something of the sound of In the formeenth century, and later on still more, the Romance introded itself into purely German words, and in many cas simplicated the shirt in Thus then it became customary to will you again to the religious we find it also in the place of i, and i the limbthouse on the confidence of its and in

Old soil Middle English s is in Anglo-Saxon the Umlau of s. The vivel s is often weakened into o; hence we find often is the Uniant of a sein pold, golden, aurum, aureus. I late Saxin this Umlant y is reduced to the original vowel u; as sesse for rever needer for wrester, unbe for ymbe, lutel for it ele in its Triling to come, come, for come, arrival; fuller follows to follows on through the sound of the Umlaut is proserved, its characteristic letter is discarded and replaced by the letter a e.g. die, eine, drie, diede, kirk, church; biggen to buy: . we ini a and i side by side; e.g. busi, bisi, busy curiere, beitere, kitchen: www. wiese, joy (Germ. wonne) milies, y tes, gillien. Though in this manner the sign of the Umlant has been altered from a into i, we have every reason to suppose that a and a were governed exactly alike, and the thus the sound of the Umlant was kept intact. The letter, having thus been me super-numerous as it were in native word it was henceforth assigned to new functions in foreign word analogous to the r in Middle High German, e.g. Ananya Herrigan, M. 1821. Perhaps the adoption of y in Latin won has caused its expulsion from the vernacular. In Old English the application of this vowel is in a state of great confusion some writers preferring a, others r, others i. Hence we me churche, charche, Mickey monator, mynator; lutel, lytel: brugs From this confusion of sounds and signs arises al brigge. the erroneous form da is for dile, as well as pulke, sulue. The chaotic state continues in Middle English; but in this peri the i gradually begins to gain the preponderance among t conflicting elements. Hence we read, king, kin, din, biggen, l to buy; littel, kiese, birie; but also, lyttel, kysse, and bury.

## Brechung.

In the Middle Teutonic dialects the system of Brechung gradually reduced to a few isolated instances which finally a appear altogether. Old High German never had a fully veloped system of Brechung like Gothic, Old Norse, a Anglo-Saxon, and it is therefore but natural that Middle H German, its offspring, should be very deficient in the sarespect. Still the latter has more frequently adopted

Brechung ie, which, however, must be owing to Low German influences, and may therefore hardly be considered as pure High German. Thus, viele, much, A. S. feolo; hiemel, heaven; hienevart, departure,—comp. A. S. heona, heonon, hinc; M. H. Germ. siehen, seven, A. S. seofon; M. H. Germ. sien, to see, A. S. seon. Middle High German as well as Old and Middle English have, in fact, gradually disposed of the Brechung by absorbing the broken vowels in one or other of the nearest related simple vowels, thus causing them to return to the sources whence they had started. An attentive examination of the facts we have advanced concerning the course of the different Middle Teutonic vowels, especially in Old and Middle English will sufficiently bear out these views.

### LONG VOWELS.

# â

Middle High German. In this dialect the vowel & corresponds closely to the O. H. Germ. &, Goth. &. Examples:—å, water, in compound names of rivers; & da, there; & ra, crow, gen. & wa; & kla, claw, gen. & klawe; zwa, duo, two; wa, where; & dl, ee; mal, sign; strâle, arrow; har, hair; jar, year; star, starling; war, true; & ram, tavern; mane, moon; wan, hope; gabe, ee; slaf, sleep; strâfe, punishment; wafen, weapons; grave, ee; rdt, counsel. Very often produced by contraction:—han maben, to have; getrân from getragen, borne; slan from maben, to stay; trân from trăhen, tear; thus also, gan, to go; en, to stand; lân, to let; getân, done. This vowel is frequently met with in foreign words, as bâbest, pope; tâvel, table; especially in the terminations, Asia, Portegâl, Adam, Afrikan, castellân, capellân, majestât, trinitât.

Old and Middle English. The Anglo-Saxon a is sometimes retained in late Saxon, sometimes inclines to  $\delta:-ba$ , both; wac, weak; snaw, snowe, snow; hal. hol (Germ. heil), salus; halic, holic, holy; sar, sor, pain, sore; ham, hom, home; ban, bon, bone; stan, stone; brad, brod, broad; clad, clod, cloth; gast, gost, ghost (sometimes a as gast, &c.); ga, go, to go; ienawe, ienowe, same, some, &c. Ablaut a, or fluctuating between a, a, o.

Old English preserves the a:-an, stane, hali; Ablaut, draf, smat, rad; occasionally also drof, smot, rod. Middle English adopts b for d, the length of the b sound being marked by a terminational b mute, following a single consonant, or by b00—b100 stoon = b100 stoon = b10 stoon = b

Middle High German. æ is the Umlaut of å. Examples:—
æle, anguillæ, from ål; hærin, crinalis, from hår; grævinse,
comitissa, from gråve; ræte, consilia, from råt; kræme, tabernæ,
from krån.

Old and Middle English. The Anglo-Saxon Umlaut e of d continues to exist in late Saxon—stán, stænig; or it wavers between e and e—tæren, léren; clæne, clêne. In Old and Middle English it is fixed down as e or ee—clene, teche, whete; except any and lady.

The Anglo-Saxon  $\alpha = \text{Goth. } \acute{ai}$ . Old High German  $\acute{e}$  takes pretty nearly the same course as the Umlaut  $\alpha$  just mentioned.

Anglo-Saxon often represents the d by a, which in sound seems nearly to approach the Umlaut, but in its derivation it must be kept strictly distinct. (Comp. Anglo-Saxon.) This Anglo-Saxon a, answering to the Gothic e, Old and Middle High German a, continues to hold its position in Late Saxon: strate, street; mal, meal; har, hair; spache, speech; dad, deed; wapon, weapon; graf (M. H. Germ. grare, earl); sometimes it is supplanted by e: sel, nedle, sed—or wavering between a, e and a (especially in the Ablaut of the pl. of the eighth and ninth conjugational class): aten, selen, queden, beren, stalen, braken, spaken. In Old and Middle English this doubtful a sound finally settles down in e: ele, slepe, dede, strete, nedle, mele (eel, sleep, deed, strete, needle, meal).

ê

Middle High German. In this dialect it holds the same position as in Old High German. Examples:—ℓ, law; ℓ, prius (cf. Germ. eher, Eng. ere); klℓ, clover; mℓ, more; rℓ, roe; snℓ, snow, nix, snℓwes, nivis; sℓ, sea; wℓ, wℓwe (Germ. weh, malum), sℓlℓ, soul; sℓr, dolor (cf. sore). This vowel rarely arises from contractions: geschℓ from geschehe, eveniat; swℓre from swehere, socero. In manuscripts the different e sounds are sometimes a little confused, and can only be kept distinct by strictly referring them to their respective class of e, ë, or ℓ; e. g. mer, sea; mër, misceo, mix; mℓr, more; her, army; hër, hither: hℓr, clarus; ber, berry; bër, a bear; bℓr, verres. In foreign words not uncommon: Pℓnℓlopℓ, Ninivℓ, Michaℓl, adℓ, adieu; cedar, cedar.

Old and Middle English. The vowel e in Old and Middle English derives its origin from divers other vowels, as we had

already occasion to point out. (1) From A. S.  $\alpha$  (Goth.  $\hat{e}$ , O. H. Germ.  $\hat{a}$ ), slepe, specke, dede, strete, &c. (2) From Umlaut of  $\delta$ : f0, f1, f2, f2, f3, f6, f6, f6, f7, f6, f8, f8, f9, and to kepe, to fele, to deme, &c. (see sub lit.  $\hat{0}$ .) (3) From A. S.  $\alpha$  = Goth.  $\hat{a}$ 6, O. H. Germ. e1: see, sea; delen, to deal; menen, to mean; brede, bread; flehs, flesh. (4) From A. S.  $\alpha$ 6, Umlaut of  $\hat{a}$ 1: wete, clene, tecke. (5) From A. S. e6: tre, kne, fle, crepe, dere, thefe, frentl, fend.

### î

Middle High German. Examples:—bî, by; bli, lead (Germ. blei); dri, three (Germ. drei); sî, sim, sit; vri, free; bîe, bee; sent fiend; wîle, time (cf. while and Germ. weile); swîn, swine; wîs, wine; wîs, woman; zît, time (cf. tide); îs, ice; îsen, iron. Formed by contraction: gît=gibet, dat. gelîn=geligen, &c. îe ccurs where an original j, g, w, has been dropped: snîe=snige, wie=zwige. Often in foreign words: lîre, lyra; fîn, fine; paradis, amîe, and amîge, arzenîe, medicine; benedîen, maledîen, benedicere, maledicere. ĭ and î distinguish wine, friend, and wîne, wine; sige, victory, and sîge, trouble, disease; also pret. and pres. of verbs kliben, haesimus, and klîben, haeremus.

Old and Middle English. The A.S. i, = Goth. ei, continues in late Saxon and in Old and Middle English, the latter dialects using occasionally y for i, and denoting the length of the vowel by doubling the i: lift for lift, abijde for abide, whijle for while,

mif for wif.

# ô

Middle High German. Examples:—dő, then; hốch, high; kɨ, highly; viố, flea; vrổ, joyful (Germ. froh); zwổ, duae; mốr, moor; ốre, ear; tớr, fool; króne, crown; lớn, reward (Germ. lohn); schône, pulchre; brốt, bread; nốt, need; tốt, death; /öz, lot. The vowel ổ stands in the same relation to ou as ể to ei; ổ and ou can be traced to Gothic áu, ể and ei to Goth ái. Foreign are mốr, krône, klôster, Didô, Platô. Observe the difference between tor, door, and tôr, fool; ros, horse, and rôs, rose; koste, I taste, gusto, and kôste, caressed, blanditus sum.

we is the Umlaut of 6: hoere, I hear; ore, ear; moeriune, fem. of môr, moor; roemise, adj. of Rôm; hoehe, height, from hôch, high; toete, I kill, occido; and toetlich, mortalis, from tôt, death, mors. The absence of Umlaut in words such as nôtec, nôtic, must be explained by the Old High German form nôtac.

Old and Middle English. The o retains its place as in Anglo-Saron and late Saxon. Thus the late Saxon dom, boc, blod,

more again in Oid and Middle English, but commonly in a spelling which endeavours to indicate the length of the wovel in an enute after a single consonant, or by familing the letter of some and down, bake and book, blake and book, blake and book and some and good, fole and foot. The Ablant also in the seventh conjugation retains the s.

# a

Middle Eigh German. Examples:—dé, thou; ad, now; el, sow; adl, noile; adl, pillar (Germ. sinle); adr, wall (Germ. maner); achér, shower; ele, sour; rém, room (Germ. raum); achén, froth (Germ. schaum); beile, bride; bie, house; adl, mouse; thead, thousand. Foreign are adl, adr, and Naudr, Nephine, fortilee.

Old and Middle English. The long a of Anglo-Saxon is in late Saxon absendy frequently found alternately with on, as in ful and foul, as and now, he and how, ten and town, our and sour; and the introlling on or on becomes predominant in Old and

Middle English.

The Umlant of of the Anglo-Saxon of disappears already in late Saxon, which lets the sound return to its original of or replaces it by i: hade, brade, rumen, whe, and brid, fir, hiddenn, &c. In Old and Middle English the fluctuation between y, w and i is continued, so that we read side by side, for and fure, ryme and rume, ful and ful, brid and brad.

#### DIPHTHONGS.

# ei

Middle High German ei=Old High German ei, Gothic áiExamples:—ei, egg; zwei, duo; heil, salus; seil, rope; teil,
part; heim, home; bein, bone; stein, stone; leip, bread, loaf;
zeichen, sign; kreiz, circle; geiz, goat, capra; sweiz, sweat;
greif, eripui (Germ. griff); pfeif, fistulavi (Germ. pfiff); steic,
scandi (Germ. stieg); sweic, tacui (Germ. schwieg); streit,
pugnavi (Germ. stritt). The diphthong ei often originates in the
elision of the medial g between a and a succeeding i, e. g. meist
(Goth. maist) meil (Goth. mail)—contractions which are of a
very ancient date—gein = gagin, against (Germ. gegen); meil=
magit, maid; rein = ragin, counsel; getreide = getregede. Of
foreign origin are meige, meiger, Keiser, turnei, conterfei, Franzeis, Wâleis, Brituneis.

Worthy of observation is the difference between ei and i: leim, argilla; lim, gluten; mein, scelus (cf. Germ. mein in mein-eid); min, meus; schein, splendui; schin, splendor; swein, puer; swin, sus; leip, panis; lip, vita. Inaccurate manuscripts show occasionally ei for æ, even for the short vowels e and ë.

## ie

Middle High German ie = Old High German ie, as well as is, io for in. Examples:—die, hie; knie, knee; nie, never; ie, ever; vie=vihe, cattle (Germ. vieh); kiel, keel; bier, beer; diet, people, gens; liet, song; lief, cucurri: rief, vocavi; slief, dormiri; hiez, vocavi; liez, sivi. Many of the verbs which formerly had reduplicated preterites, show now the diphthong ie. Foreign words:—tievel, diabolus; priester, presbyter; spiegel, speculum; feler, fier, banier, revier, soldier, parlieren, formieren, turnieren.

## iu

Middle High German = Old High German. Examples:—
diu, ancilla; kniu, knee; niu, new; getriu, faithful (Germ.
getreu); iuwer, vester; triuwe, fides; siule, column (Germ. säule);
eiule, putresco (Germ. faule); hiure, hoc anno (Germ. heuer);
hiute, hodie (Germ. heute); tiure, dear (Germ. teuer); viur, fire;
hiute, depth (Germ. tiefe); liuge, lie (Germ. lüge). The alternate use of iu and ie we observe chiefly in the verbal forms:—
hiute and biete, biuge and biege, &c.; but briuwe, kiuwe, bliuwe,
have always iu, never ie. The transition from ie to iu may
further be traced in the relation between substantives and their
respective adjective or verbal forms, e. g. adj. siech, subst. siuch;
adj. tief, subst. tiufe; lieht, lux; liuhte, luceo; diep, fur; diubic,
furtivus. The terminational iu sometimes adopts the fuller
form in iuwe, e. g. niu, getriu; niuwe, getriuwe.

#### ou

Middle High German=Old High German. Examples:—ou, sheep, ovis; ton, dew (Germ. tau); vrow, woman (German. frau); ouwe, water; boum, tree (Germ. baum); stroum, stream; troum, dream (Germ. traum); loup, leaf (Germ. laub); stoup, dust (Germ. staub); touf, baptism (Germ. taufe); ouge, eye (Germ. auge); rouch (Germ. rauch, fumus). This diphthong has to yield its place to 6 (which may be considered its representative in a more condensed form) whenever the terminational m which follows is weakened into n as bon = boum. ou is Umlaut of

on: gön, pagus (Germ. gau); köu, hay (Germ. heu); also gönne, köune; önne, gen. of ou, sheep, ovis; vröunen, femininus, from vrou; lönbin, foliaceus, lönber, folia, from lond, folium; vröude, joy (Germ. freude). This Umlaut is comparatively scarce, and seems to have a predilection for a position preceding the v sound, as in önne Gothic avi, O. H. Germ. avi, evi, ouvi. Its orthography is unsettled: besides ön we find öi, öy, and still more frequently eu.

#### uo

Middle High German. Examples:—druo, weight, fruit; kno, cow; ruo, rest (Germ. ruhe); schuo, shoe; vruo, early (Germ. frühe); schuole, school; stuol, chair, stool; muor, moor, palus; bluome, flower (Germ. blume); ruom, glory (Germ. ruhm); suon, son (Germ. sohn); huof, hoof; stuofe, step (Germ. stufe); pfluoc, plough; bruoder, brother; bluot, blood; guot, good; muoler, mother; vuoz, foot; sluoc, cecidi; truoc, tuli.

we is the Umlaut of no:—blüen, florere; glüen, fervere; grüen, virere; müen, vescare; also blüejen, glüejen, &c.; küeve, hoofs; büechel, libellus; büechîn, fagineus; blüete, flores; gemüete, and mus; füeze, feet. The Umlaut in blüen, glüen, &c., was brought about by a succeeding i which has been dropped, but which however is sometimes found as the semivowel j, as in blüe-j-en, glüe-j-en—forms in which the e of the infinitive also re-appears, and which in blüen, glüen, is absorbed by the diphthong of the root.

# ai, au, ey, oi, oy

In Middle High German these diphthongs appear in foreigns words, chiefly such as are imported from the Romance dialects, e. g. faile=velum, voile; failieren=fallere, faillir; Laurín, Kaukasas; templeys, wâleys; boie, gloie, troie; roys, poys, troys.

# ai, au, eu, öi

Middle High German. These vowels are occasionally used to replace one or other of the organic diphthongs which we have examined in detail. It is therefore hardly necessary to say that they cannot be considered as organic diphthongs, and that they hold a position in dialectic variations, and not in such productions as come up to the standard of good Middle High German.

Examples:  $-au = ou, \vec{u}$ : haubet, gelauhe, haus, auge;  $= \vec{a}$ : slauf, raut, taut = slaf, rat, tat. This au is very harsh and repulsive.

eu=öu: freude, geuden=fröude, göuden. This eu may be traced to Gothic terminations in avi, and thus be considered the direct Umlaut of Goth au: freude from frawida, O. H. Germ.; streute from O. H. Germ. strawita, Goth. stravida. eu=iu: hiute, briute. öi occasionally replaces öu the Umlaut of ou: göi=göu, pagus, shire; fröide=fröude, joy; löiber=löuber, folia.

#### ou

Old and Middle English. (1) For Anglo-Saxon o, indicating the production of the original vowel, as in fongten, fought = foogle, fogte—very rare, because o commonly holds its own. (2) For Anglo-Saxon  $\hat{u}$ . In late Saxon the long u preserves its position, its quantity being denoted by a simple consonant following it, e. g. ful, pu, dun, rum, sur, ure (see sub lit.  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ ); but even here it must sometimes give way to ou: foule, soure, pou, &c.

In Old and Middle English, ou (ow) has gained supremacy over u, the latter vowel being apparently applied only to indi-

cate the short u sound.

(3) For Anglo-Saxon eó we find the diphthong ou in Middle English (see sub lit. eó).

### eó

The Anglo-Saxon e6 begins in late Saxon already to be supplemented often by simple vowels, especially the long e. Thus we find feond, fiend; seoc, seek; fleo, flea; deor, door; deore, dear; leaf; leom, gleam; deop, deep; breost, breast,—by the side of fle, der, dere, lef, lem, dep, brest.

Old English rarely retains the diphthong eo, as in heo, deol, eoe; but fills its place indiscriminately, as it were with any other vowel, e, i, o or u: e.g. e-kne, tre, fle; o-lese, lose,

for lese, for lose, loke, to lock; lout; u-aluye; i-lie.

In Middle English eo disappears altogether, being superseded certain words by a long e, in others by the diphthong ou; e. e. e-tree, kne, dere, pe, thefe, frend, fend; ou-foure, youth, brouke, to loute.

# eá

This Anglo-Saxon diphthong was already abandoned in late Saxon, and its place filled by æ, seldom by a or e; e. g. æ (A. S. ea, water, river), ære (A. S. ear, ear), stræm (stream), stræm; dæf, læf, bræd. Old English has occasionally ea, as in gleam, eam, but commonly e, e. g. streme, depe, chepe, defe; and Middle English adopts the long e, which is sometimes rendered by ee,

as need, breed, reed (Wycliffe). The Anglo-Saxon Ablaut eá of the sixth conjugation is also supplanted by æ and its cognate vowels e and a: scæf. scef, scæf, sæc, soc, læs, les. Old English clef, flet, ches, frese; Middle English, cleef, fleet, chees, frees.

### III. NEW TEUTONIC1.

#### a

German. In Modern High German this vowel has preserved its original pure sound, and may therefore be considered as perfectly identical with the a sound in Old High German, deviating neither towards the higher pitched e nor the darker sound of o; and this rule holds good not only for cases in which it remains short, but for those also which show it converted into a long vowel. Hence \(\tilde{ab}\), de, pr\(\tilde{ep}\); \(mathbb{a}m\) (French on); \(mathbb{v}ald\), forest, contain a sound which is identical with that in \(label{abe}\), to refresh; \(value{abe}\), \(taker), \(taker\) father; \(halpha\), hare; \(sage\), tale, saga; and with the organically long \(a\) in \(gamma\) in \(gamma\), \(ga

Whilst in Middle and Old High German the sound was often fluctuating between a and o, Modern German has decided in favour of one or the other, and thus ohne, sine; mond, moon; monat, month, woge, wave, for the M. H. Germ. ane, mane, manet, wae; and monat, brautigam, bridegroom; eidam, gener;

heimat, home, for O. H. Germ. mano, prutigomo, eidum.

English. The Anglo-Saxon & (for High German a) which already in Old and Middle English had been commonly replaced by a, finds in Modern English also its expression in the vowel a, but it seems still to preserve its original sound wherever the vowel is short. Examples:—sat, glad, at, that, cat, apple, ash, &c.

When the vowel is lengthened, the a sound is modified in two directions so as to become identical with e or o, e.g. whale, grave, ate, late, raven, and spoke, broke, stole, bore. The consonants ll at the end, and w at the beginning of a word, darken the a sound into å (å), the medium between a and o, e.g. small, water, what, was, &c. The Anglo-Saxon a, which often inclines towards o, is, in Modern English, either rendered by o or has finally adopted the original a, which, in pronunciation however, is treated in the same manner as the a (= Anglo-Saxon a) which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The distinction of organically short and long vowels having all but disappeared, both classes of vowels are treated under the same head.

we have just examined. Thus we read o in long, strong, throng, tong, tong; thong; short a in man, can, camp, thank, and, sand, land, hammer; long a in name, lame, tame, lane, same; a sound

darkened by preceding w in wan, swan.

The Anglo-Saxon ea is in Modern, just as in Old and Middle, English rendered by a, which however under different consomntal influences assumes a different sound. Pure a sound before r-harm, farm, yarn, mark, sharp, hard; darkened into à (a) before II, It, Ik—all, hall, fall, malt, halt, talk, walk; raised towards the higher pitch of e—shall, shadow, ax, wax; identical with e when lengthened—shame, ale, scale; supplanted by e—stern, belch.

Dutch. The distinction between long and short vowels being preserved in this more than in any other Teutonic dialect, we give the examples classified under the heads of short and long.

Short before a single consonant: dal, dale, valley; smal, small; tam, tame; nam, cepi (Germ. nahm); gaf, dedi, gave; graf, grave; staf, staff; dag, day; zwak, weak; blad, leaf; al, all; stal, stall; zal, shall; kam, comb; lam, lamb; flam, flame; man, man.

Short before double consonants: galm, sound; half; half; half; ealf; hals, neck; arm, arm; lang, long, zang, song; tand, tooth; gans, goose; arm, warm, damp, hard, band, hand, land,

&c. Geminated consonants: alle, stallen, mannen, &c.

The fluctuations of the a sound which we have so frequently observed, chiefly in the ancient Low German dialects, is kept alive in Dutch too, the vowel a rising into e in the words scherp, sharp; erg, wicked (Germ. arg); sterk, strong (Germ. stark); and descending to the lower pitch of o in the preterite of strong verbs: ron, cucurri, ran, run; zong, cecini, sang, sung; dronk, bibi, drank, drunk. Dutch a for e in hart, heart (Germ. herz); mart (Germ. schmerz); pard, horse (Germ. pferd); zwdrd, sword (Germ. schwert).

Long a, spelt in Dutch aa, in Flemish ae, is organie in al, cel; har, hair; jar, year; war, true; gran, grain, frumentum; man, moon; wan, hope; schap, sheep; sprak, speech; dad, deed; long by production in tal, language; dar, there; war, where; scham, shame; han, cock; ap, ape; wak, wake; has, hare; long by contraction in blan foliis (=bladen); var, father (=vader); slan, slay (=slahen); tran, drag, trahere (=trahen); magd, maid (=maged); tragt, fertis (=traget). In the penult before single consonants the Dutch dialect writes simply a, whether the vowel is originally long or short, and in this case Grimm recognizes his Middle Dutch 'Schwebelaut,' fluctuating sound,' which is neither decidedly long nor short; as alen, an-

quille (= álen); jaren, anni (= járen); spraken, linguæ (= spráken); and hanen, galli; hasen, lepores; apen, simiæ,—in which the s

was originally short.

Swedish. The vowel a has its prototype in the Old Norse vowel of the same quantity, but it remains short only before double consonants: all, all; falla, to fall; kalla, to call; skall, shall; gammal, old; hammare, hammer; tacka, to thank; vatten, water; elm, elm; half, half; barn, infant; skarp, sharp; sell, salt; namn, name; hampa, hamper; krank, sick; hand, land, &c.

The vowel a preceding the combinations ld, rg, ng, is con-

verted into a, of which below.

Before single consonants the pure a sound is retained, but lengthened in pronunciation: dal, dale; bar, bare, nude; bar, bore, tulit; skam, shame; hane, cock; graf, grave; dag, day; lag, law; mat, meat; vara, to be, for vära; qvar, quiet, for quir

(cf. the use of the Dutch a for e).

The Swedish å which stands for the Old Norse å, has undoubtedly had its origin in the lengthened a or aa. Analogous is the frequent decline of the English a into the middle sound between a and o under the influence of certain consonants, as ll, w, &c.; and still more so the fluctuation between a and o in some Old Teutonic tongues, as hond for hand, holden for halden, mon for man. Though this vowel is now identical with o it must originally have had a middle sound between a and o, as the English a in wall, war, &c. Examples:—ål, eel; mål, language; år, year; får, sheep; hår, hair; måne, moon; vån, hope språk, speech; gås, goose; å, river; gå, to go; slå, slay; tå, toe stå, to stand; strå, straw; ålder, age; gård, villa (cf. yard and garden); hård, hard; lång, long; ålta, eight; måtte, might; but nalt, night (Germ. nacht).

Danish. Before single consonants organically short and long vowels are identical; before double and geminated consonants they are always short. Examples:—dal, dale; gale, to sing; bar, bare, nude; bar, bore, tulit; hare, hare; skam, shame; hane, eock; grav, grave; hare, to have; dag, day; blad, leaf; had, hate, odium; mad, meat; alle, all; takke, to thank; halv, half; kalde, to call; salt, salt; barn, infant; skarp, sharp; arg, wicked (Germ. arg); hamp, hamper; vand, water; mand, man; land,

sand, &c.

Transitions into aa and o are not easily fixed by rules, and sometimes deviate from the Swedish: e.g. alder=Sw. ålder; folde, to fold; holde, to hold; volde, to command; bold, kold=Sw. fälla, hålla, rålla, kåll; but falde, galde, kalde=Sw. falla, galla, kulla;—gaard, yard, haard, hard (=Sw. gård, hård). By

the side of land we have baand and haand = Sw. land, band, hand;

lov, law (= Sw. lag).

Danish possesses, like Swedish, the sound a, a medium between a and o, which however most Danish authors, with the exception of Rask and other grammarians, write aa, though In its pronunciation it touches very closely on the Swedish a. has chiefly to fill the place of the Old Norse a: aal, eel; maal, Augusge; aar, year; faar, sheep; haar, hair; saar, sore; maane, moon; caaben, weapon; daad, deed; aa, river; daa, doe; faa, lew; gaae, to go; graa, grey; raa, raw; saa, so; taa, toe; straa, straw. This vowel, like the Swedish a, is chiefly met with before the consonants ld, nd, rd, which cannot be preceded by the pure sound. Whilst however the Swedish represents only the Old Norse a, the Danish aa stands also for Old Norse o: kaare, to Choose, Sw. kora; aaben, open, O. N. opinn; draabe, drop, O.N. dropi. aa = Old Norse 6: raabe, to shout, Sw. ropa, O. N. hropa. =Goth. au, O. H. Germ. ou, o: skaane, to spare, Sw. skona, Germ. schonen; haan, scorn, Germ. hohn; daab, Sw. dop, bap-Tism, Germ. taufe.

# a (æ)

German. \(\alpha\) (\(\alpha\)) is Umlaut of \(a(\alpha\)):—\(wallam\), choice, \(wallam\) ender, to choose \(\frac{1}{2}; z\hat{a}l\), number, \(z\alpha len\), to count; \(z\hat{a}m\), tame, \(z\alpha men\), to tame; \(hand\) (sing.), \(h\lambda nde\) (pl.); \(gr\lambda ben\), to dig, \(gr\lambda bet\) (3rd pers. sing), \(value ter\), \(value ter\); \(blatter\); \(gr\lambda so\), \(gr\lambda sorman\), \(\alpha rmer\), \(harder\), \(h

Swedish. The vowel \(\alpha\) in Swedish has superseded five different Old Norse vowels. (1)=O. N. \(a\): gr\(\alpha\)s, grass (A. S. gr\(\alpha\)s). (2)=O. N. \(e\), Umlaut of \(a\): s\(\alpha\)lja, to sell; \(b\alpha\)r, berry; \(h\alpha\)r, army; \(\llimi\)j\(\alpha\)ja, to gladden; \(\llimi\)j\(\alpha\)ja, to gladden; \(\llimi\)j\(\alpha\)ja, to fell; \(\alpha\)gg, edge and egg; \(d\)r\(\alpha\)gg, dreg; \(lam\)j\(\alpha\)gg, to lay; \(s\)\(\alpha\)tata, to set; \(sm\)\(\alpha\)jtata, to smelt; \(\alpha\)ggl, angel; \(\alpha\)jle, apple; \(\llimi\)jstata, horse. (3)=O. N. \(e\), Brechung and Tr\(\alpha\)bung of \(i\): \(\var{v}\)jle, well; \(\alpha\)r, is, est; \(\bar{b}\)ara, to bear; \(v\alpha\)g, way; \(v\alpha\)der, weather; \(\alpha\)to eat; \(sv\)ard, sword. (4)=O. N. \(\alpha\), whether Umlaut of \(\alpha\) or

<sup>1</sup> wal, walen, commonly spelt wahl, wählen.

contraction of ai, ei: mäla, to talk; säll (felix f. A. S. sälig), säd, seed; frände, friend; ära, honour (Germ. ehre); lära, Germ. lehren; kläde, vestis (Germ. kleid); mästare, master (Germ. meister). (5)=O. N. é, only at the end of words: fä, cattle

(Germ. vieh); knä, knee; trä, wood (cf. tree).

Danish. The Danish ä stands to the Old Norse in about the same relation as Swedish. Hence Danish ä (1) = O. N. a: gräs, grass; läs, burden. (2)=O. N. e: bär, berry; kär, army; räd, net; gläde, gladness; tämme, to tame; sätte, to set; sälge, to sell; märke, to mark; kände, pl. of kand. (3)=O. N. ë: bärre, to bear; väre, to be; väve, to weave; äde, to eat; väd, mos (Germ. sitte); väder, ram (Germ. widder); svärd, sword. (4)=O. N. æ: mäle, to talk; äre, honour; läre, to teach; kläde, vestris; säd, seed. (5)=O. N. ë: fä, cattle; knä, knee; trä, tree.

e

This letter can even in Modern German still be traced to the Umlaut of a, or to the Brechung or Trübung of i. The vowel e is Umlaut of a in the words heer, meer, erbe, stellen, hemd, fremd, end, &c. (Concerning this Umlaut and the Umlaut ä, see sub lit. ä.) The sound ë as Trübung of i we find in regen, rain; degen, sword, which Grimm considers different in pronunciation from legen and bewegen, where the e is caused by Umlaut; but I must plead ignorance of that distinction. The different shades in the pronunciation of the German e are owing to consonantal influences (cf. mehr, meer, sehr, seele, heer, herr, wer, degen, legen, regen, segen, sprechen, stechen) rather than etymological deductions; nay the 'usus loquendi', the mode of pronunciation, has even corrupted the legitimate spelling of certain words, writing  $\ddot{a}$  (a) for e: bar, a bear; gebæren, to bear; rächen, to revenge; dämmern, to dawn, on account of the close analogy to the pronunciation of the modern Umlaut ä in were, gabe, lase.

English. The Anglo-Saxon e, as Umlaut of a, is retained in the words den, hen, fen, men, hell, bed, net, better, bench, to sell, to tell, &c. But the Umlaut has returned to the original a in to bare, to tame, to hate, to quake, angel. This fact may be explained by the analogy of the adjectives bare, tame, which never were subject to the Umlaut.

The Anglo-Saxon  $\ddot{e}$ , Brechung and Trübung of i, on the whole preserves its pronunciation, but not its spelling, in Modern English. Short e remains in well, spell, knell, helm, self, help,

to fret, weather, to tread, to burst (=to berst), to burn (=to bern). The sound is lengthened in to bear, to break. In play, way, vain, the a has superseded the e, and y or i takes the place of g: rain =rein=regen; way=wey=wey. Lengthened e for the A.S. ë in ke, ye, thee, shield, field, to speak, to eat, to weave, to steat.

Long e, spelt ee, is a very favourite vowel in Modern English, which however in pronunciation is identical with the lengthened i of the other Teutonic dialects. It stands (1) for A. S. &—eel, sleep, speech, greedy, seed, weed, deed; but it is supplanted by ea (pronounced = ee) in read, meal, deal, whilst the long e sound remains in hair, were, there, grey, strait. Short e in weapon: note briar=A. S. brar. (2) ee=A. S. ê, Umlaut of ô: to feel, keel, to deem, to seem, green, keen, to weep, to seek, to bleed; feet, pl. of foot; teeth, pl. of tooth; geese, pl. of goose. (3) ee=A. S. ea and ê, O. H. Germ. oû, ô: e. g. cheek, A. S. ceác; leek, reek, need. But ea is more commonly used as the direct representative of the A. S. ea, though in pronunciation it is identical with ee. (4) ee=A. S. eó, Goth. iu, O. H. Germ. io; e. g. bee, A. S. beó; tree, A. S. treó; glee, A. S. gleó; deep, meek, meed, reed. (5) ee=A. S. i: free, three, peep.

Dutch. The vowel e is rare before single consonants in monosyllables, more common in connection with double consonants. Examples:—hel, clear (Germ. hell); hel, hell (Germ. hölle); mel, quick (Germ. schnell); vel, skin (Germ. fell); ster, star; ben (Germ. ich bin), I am; hen, pen, bed, net, leg, lay, pono; meg, way; meg, say, dico; helle, snelle, velle, sterren, henne, penne, bedde, leggen, melk, milk; veld, field; werk, work; denken, to think; enkel, ankle; mensch, homo. The vowel e in all these words arises, as in High German, partly from the Umlaut of a, partly from the weakening of i, but in pronunciation it is the

same throughout.

The long e is in Dutch, as in English, spelt ee. Organic it is in deel, deal; heel, heal; meer, more; zeer, sore, pain; steen, stone; week, weak; bleef, mansit; dreef, pepulit; peeg, inclinavit; zweeg, tacuit. Production of e: steel, steal, furor; beer, bear; beek, beach; pleeg, soleo; breek, frango; steep, pungo. By syncope of de: vree=vrede, peace (Germ. friede); veer=veder, feather; neer=neder, neither. It must be specially remarked that the short e placed in the penult before a single consonant is not doubled, though it becomes long by production and rhymes with the long e of the words mentioned before; e.g. hemel, heaven (Germ. hunnel); gene, ille (Germ. jener); leven, to live; geven, to give; breken, to break; eten, to eat; zegel, sail.

02 :

17:-

Swedish. ? represents three ancient vowels: Old Norse 4 Umbut of a, in which position however it is rare, because Swedish orthography prefers a to mark the Umlaut. Examples: -elf, O. N. elfs, river Lat. albis; elg, alces (O. N. elgr); enla, widow O. N. eckja : mensiahs, homo. This Umlaut is, like the Umlaut e in German, no longer felt as such in the vowel-system of the language.  $\epsilon = 0$ . N.  $\epsilon$ , rarely rendered by  $\tilde{a}$ . Examples: - epel. play Germ. spiel; lem, limb; regn, rain; red, wood; svet, sweat: Ired. reace: sens, sinew: this vowel is chiefly met with in the pl. pret. of the strong conjugation (but not in the park pret.; e. g. drefro, pepulerunt; sreko, fefellerunt; sredo, dolurunt; beto, momorderunt. e=O. N. ei: del, part, deal (Gern. theil; hel, heal (Germ. heil); hem, home (Germ. heim); ben, bone Germ. bein): sen, stone (Germ. stein); ek, oak (Germ. eiche. In pronunciation e and a touch closely upon each other, hence their occasional interchange, as elf and alf, river; trease and tränne, bini; vet e approaches more nearly the i, and i the a, a circumstance which may be explained from their origin in the Old Norse i and u.

Danish. The Danish e is in its origin identical with the Swedish, though its occurrence may be more or less frequent according to accidental circumstances. e=O. N. e, commonly before doubled, rarely before single consonants; e.g. fremsed, foreign (Germ. fremd); menneske, homo; elv, river; elske, to love; enke, widow; ende, end; sende, to send; kest, horse. e=O. N. ei: deel, been, steen, eg, Germ. theil, bein, stein, ei.

### i

German. This vowel is less frequently used than in the Middle High German, the original i being only preserved befor double consonants; e. g. still, nimm, accipe; sinn, sense; sitted mos; wild, sind, sunt; wird, Lat. fit; whilst before single consonants it is lengthened into i: mir, mihi; dir, tibi; im, ei; in eum; or it is changed into ie. The Middle High German interchange between ë and i in the conjugation of the verb is continued: werden, fieri; wird, fit; geben, dare; gibt, dat; sehen, videre; sieht, videt; wichsen, to polish, erroneously for wecksen wächsen from wachs, wax.

English. Short i before single consonants: him, dim, spin, swim, rib, lip, ship. For the more ancient y in sin, kin. Before double consonants: kill, still, will, stiff, thick, timber, thing, gift,

<sup>1</sup> Commonly spelt ihm, ihn.

mist, witch. For the more ancient y: ill, mill, hill, king, kiss, wish, bridge. Before r where it assumes the sound of German " or ö: sir, fir, bird, birch, girl, mirth. On comparing fir, gird, shirt, with the German foere, stoeren, &c., we may find an analogon to the exceptional sound of i before r, though it will be difficult fully to account for it in the manner in which Grimm traces the verb to stir to the A.S. styran, O. H. Germ. storan,

Germ. stoeren

The long i is denoted in English orthography by the e mute which follows a single consonant; it has in pronunciation attained the sound of the German diphthong ei: file (Germ. feile); while (Germ. weile); wine (Germ. wein); ripe (Germ. reif); side (Germ. seite); tide (Germ. zeit); drive (Germ. treiben); wide (Germ. weil). For the A. S. g: fire, A. S. fgr, O. H. Germ. fiur, Germ. feuer; bride, A. S. bryd, O. H. Germ. prut, Germ. braut; lice, pl. of louse, A. S. Us, pl. of lis; mice, pl. of mouse, A. S. mys, pl. of mus, cf. Germ. laus, läuse; maus, mäuse. ld and nd the long i has replaced the short i, as child, mild, wild, bind, find, grind; but the short i sound is preserved where a second syllable is added: compare the sound in child and children, hind and hinder. The sound of the i is fluctuating in the word wind. For y: kind, A.S. gecynde; mind, A. S. gemynde. Before gh: bright, A. S. briht = byrht = beorht; to fight, A. S. fihtan; high, A. S. heáh; light, A. S. leóht; thigh, A. S. peóh.

The short i is scarce before single, more frequent before double consonants: stil, still; wil, I will; min, love; zin, sense; ik, I, ego; lid, limb (Germ. glied); smid, smith; schip, ship. This i which has commonly been replaced by e, is, in pro-Dunciation, an intermediate sound between the German i and e, so that min, ik, schip, are almost identical with men, ek, schep; and hence the fact that formerly the orthography was indeed Auctuating between schep and schip, led and lid, smed and smid, and that monosyllables in i which do not geminate their consonants upon adding another syllable, change the i into e, e.g. schip, schepen; lid, leden; smid, smeden. Before double con-Sonants: stillen, willen, minne, zinne, schild, wild, vinger, zingen, drinken, blind, wind, kind (child). It represents a more ancient ie in the reduplicational vowel ging (= gieng), ivit; hing, pependit;

ving, cepit; vrind for vriend.

The long i is spelt ij, Flemish y. The pronunciation of this vowel is very much like the English i in might, and the German diphthong ei, but so that the e element of this diphthong comes more decidedly to the surface; and hence ij sounds almost like e+i pronounced separately but rapidly one after the other. The Dutch diphthong ei may be considered identical with the German ei in pronunciation as well as derivation, if with Grimm we may consider ij the representative of the Gothic ei, and the Dutch ei of the Gothic diphthong ái. Examples of i:—mijn, dijn, zijn, to be (Germ. sein); wijn, wine (Germ. wein); rijp, ripe (Germ. reif); tijd, tide (Germ. zeit); bijten, to bite; nijd, envy (Germ. neid);

lijf, life; lijk, body (cf. Germ. leiche); ijs, ice (Ger. eis).

Swedish. The vowel i in this dialect corresponds with the Old Norse i as well as i. Before single consonants it is scarce, and, just as in Dutch, approaching the e in its sound—a fact which here again finds an explanation in the still undecided orthography of some words, as frid and fred, peace; further in the pl. pret. and part. pret. of strong verbs, the former adopting, the latter rejecting the e, as drefvo, drifven. Words retaining the i are til, to, ad; vilja, to will; gifva, to give; mig, dig, sig, me, te, se; frid, kid, vid. It is the more frequent before double consonants; e.g. illa, ill; lille, little; stilla, quietus (Germ. stille); till, ad; vill, vult; himmel, heaven; svimma, to swim; finna, to find; minne, memory; qvinna, woman; sinne, mind; spinna, to spin; slippa, to slip; ligga, to lie; dricka, to drink; bitter, mild, vild, vinter, blind, fingr, silfver. i=0. N. i: bila, hatchet (Germ. beil); kil, wedge (Germ. keil); skir, pure; spira, spire; fin, fine; vin, wine; drifva, to drive; lih, like; spih, spike; rida, to ride; vid, wide; lisa, leisure. At the end of words; bi, bee; si, ecce; skri, clamor (Germ. schrei). i for O. N. é: fick and gick for feck and geck.

Danish. Danish i stands to Old Norse in the same relation as Swedish. (1)=O. N. i: spil, play (Germ. spiel); til, ad; vill, volo; tin, give, skip, ship; mig, dig, sig, me, te, se; kid, himmel, heaven; ligge, to lie; drikke, to drink; bitter, mild, vild, ring, finde, qvinde, woman; sind, mind (Germ. sinn); spinde, to spin; vinter, fisk, fish; vrist. (2)=O. N. i, before liquids commonly spelt ü: büll, hatchet (Germ. beil); spür, spire; vün, wine; in all other cases spelt i: drive, liv, life; viv, woman (cf. wife); tid, tide (Germ. zeit); lig, like; lig, body (Germ. leiche). At the end of words: bi, bee; ti, ten; sti, sty; stie, stem (Germ.

stichel).

#### .0

German. Before two consonants it has remained organically short: voll, full; fromm, pious; sonne, sun; gott, God; gold, wort. Before a single consonant it is either organically long, as

tôd, dead; rôt¹, red; zôg, traxit; lôn, reward; rôr, read; ôr, ear; bône, bean; or it has been lengthened by inorganic production; sôn, son; lôb, praise; bôgen, bow; vôgel, bird; bôte, mes-

senger.

English. The relation of the o sound is rather complicated. since this vowel derives its origin from divers Anglo-Saxon vowels, from a, o, u, d and d. (1) o organically derived from u: hole, borough, for, fore, or, nor, to come, some, son, love, above, God, gospel, folk, gold, ford, short, worth, fox, ox; strong pret. part. stolen, born, shorn, torn, worn, got, forgot, spoken. The sound of the short o is everywhere preserved except before combinations with r, such as r, rm, rn, rd, rt, where it is pronounced as an intermediate sound between the German a and o. (2) o from a chiefly before ld, mq, ng: bold, cold, fold, hold, old; cf. Germ. kalt, falte, halten, alt. Strong pret. : stole, broke, trod, bore, won; cf. Germ. stahl, brach, trat, gebahr, gewann; soft and other, long in Anglo-Saxon, for Germ. sanft and ander, and identical with the A.S. of in gos and too, goose, tooth, which latter words have in modern English expressed their length by oo, and hence adopted the pronunciation of this vowel as in tool, pool, &c. In the same manner as we find the organic o lengthened into o, we find the long o occasionally yielding to correption and becoming short, as in brother, mother, bosom, blossom, Monday (= Monday, Moonday), &c. (3) o=A.S. a, in which case it is always long. Example: -whole, A. S. hal (Germ. heil); home, A. S. ham (Germ. heim); bone, A. S. ban (Germ. bein); both (Germ. beide); ghost (Germ. geist); most (Germ. meist). But the Anglo-Saxon d is more usually rendered in English by oa, of which hereafter. (4) 0= A.S. eá in the pret.: crope, repsit. A.S. creáp; chose, elegit, A.S. ceás; froze, alsit, A.S. freás. (5) The final o is of different origin in different words: so, A. S. sva; two, A. S. twa; to do, A.S. don; to go, A.S. gangan, gongan. Contractions are, lord from hlaford, woman from wif-man.

The English long o is spelt oo, and corresponds to the Anglo-Saxon o, Old High German uo, German u; with the last it is identical also in pronunciation. Examples:—cool (Germ. kuel); pool (Germ. pfûl); stool (Germ. stûl)<sup>2</sup>; hoof (Germ. hûf); book (Germ. buch); good (Germ. gût); mood (Germ. mût); rood (Germ. rûte); foot (Germ. fûß); bloom (Germ. blûme): cf. the Dutch bloem, koel, &c. To be noted are a few exceptions in the pronunciation of the oo, such as the shortening of the vowel in

Commonly spelt roth, lôhn, &c., where the h is introduced to denote the length of the vowel. See the letter h, consonants.
 Commonly spelt kühl, pfuhl, stuhl, &c.

good, foot, look, and the deviation from the oo sound in blood (Germ. blût). of (oo) for the ancient d, which however in Anglo-Saxon is already rendered by o, while in German it is in some words kept alive to the present day: moon, A. S. mona, M. H. Germ. mane, Germ. mond; soon, A. S. sona, M. H. Germ. san; tooth, A. S. too, M. H. Germ. zant, Germ. zan. Other and soft have preserved the o sound. Choose, lose (=loose) answer to A. S. ceosan and leosan; loose = loosen, to A. S. lysan. The termination hood=Germ. heit is the A. S. had; room is A. S. rûm;

door, A. S. dor; wood, A. S. vudu.

Short o occurs before single consonants in monosyllables and before double consonants in trisyllabic words. Examples: -hol, hole; wol, wool; dom, silly (Germ. dumm); hof, court (Germ. hof); lof, praise (Germ. lob); zon, sun; kop, head (Germ. kopf); blos (blossom); vos, fox; morren, knorren, to murmur (Germ. murren, knurren); kommer, anguish (Germ. kummer); nonne, nun; wolken, clouds; golf, wolf, storm, worm, tong, tongue; hond, dog (Germ. hund); mond, mouth (Germ. mund); wond, wound. o=ë in worden=werden, fieri. In the preterite of the strong verbs o for a: borg, sprong, zong, bond, vond; cf. Germ. barg, sprang, sang, band, fand. o for oe: zochte, Germ. suchte, (quæsivit) and the termination dom, Eng. dom, Germ. thum; but doemen, to doom. Sometimes o before r with another consonant is converted into o, and thus becomes an inorganic production: doom, thorn; hoorn, horn; toorn, wrath (Germ. zorn); oord, place (Germ. ort); woord, word.

The long o is, as in English, spelt oo, but is pronounced like the German of in thor, lohn, and the English in bore, bone. It occurs organically long in the words hoor, audio, hear; verloor, perdidi; moor, moor; oor, ear; roor, reed; boom, tree (Germ. baum); stôm, steam; stroom, stream; boon, bean; loof, leaf; oog, eye; dood, death; brood, bread; nood, need; hooren, audire; ooren, aures; oogen, oculi, &c. It occurs as production of o in kool, coal; zoon, son; boog, bow; noot, net; syncope of de in goon=goden, diis; boon=boden, nuntiis—words which rhyme on loon, kroon, zoon. In the following words we have o organically short, and yet it is pronounced long so as to rhyme upon the examples with oo just mentioned: geboren, born; komen, to

come; zomer, summer; gebroken, broken, &c.

Swedish. o = O. N.  $\delta$  or  $\delta$ . The sound of  $\delta$  which we examined above, being almost identical with o, modern orthography has largely adopted the former letter to supply the latter, e. g.  $\hbar \delta l$ ,  $sp\delta r$ ,  $b\delta ge$ ,  $f\delta gel$ , for hol, spor, boge, fogel; but historically the o is preferable. Examples:—hol, hole; kol, coal; spor,

track (Germ. spuhr); honung, honey; kona, woman; son, son; hof, court; lof, praise; boge, bow; fogel, bird; ok, yoke; och, and; bod, messenger. Production is prevented by the gemination of the consonant: sporre, spur; komma, to come; sommar, summer; droppe, a drop; hopp, hope; flotta, fleet; fox, oxe, ox. Before double consonants: holm, island; orm, snake; horn; morgon, early; ord, word; frost. o=O.N. o: sol, sun; stol, stool; stor, great; tondon, thunder; dom, doom; bog, bow; skog, wood; bok, book; blod, blood; broder, brother; fot, foot; hof, sustulit; for, ivit; drog, traxit; -cf. the German preterites hub, fuhr, trug. o=Goth. au, O. H. Germ. ou: dop, baptism (Germ. taufe). At the end of words: bo, to dwell ; bro, bridge ; gro, to grow; ko, cow; ro, rest; so, a sow. Though, as we have stated, a is sometimes placed for o, it is only for the o of the first class, i. e. that which represents the Old Norse o or u, never for o=O. N. o; because it would appear that the difference in pronunciation is still great enough to deter a fine ear from rhyming dam and dom, tag and tog, stal and stol.

Danish The rules laid down for Swedish will hold good for this dialect too; wherefore few examples may suffice. o = O. N.  $\delta$  or  $\check{u}$ : spor, track; spore, spur; kone, woman; og, and; fos, fox; holm, island; orm, worm; torn, thorn. o = a: solde, folde, holde; lov, law (= O. N. lag). o = O. N.  $\delta$ : sol, sun; stol, stool; dom, doom; bog, book; blod, blood; fod, foot—preterites of the verb; for, drog, slog, tog, &c. o = O. N.  $\delta$  (compare the Swedish  $\check{a}$  for o): sprog, language, Germ. sprache, Sw. språk; vove, audere, Germ. wagen, Sw. våga: cf. Germ. mond, one<sup>1</sup>, for M. H. Germ. måne, åne. At the end of words: bo, dwelling; bro, bridge, &c.,

see Swedish.

### ö

German. ö is Umlaut of o: wörter, pl. of wort, word; söhne, pl. of sohn, son; löblich, adj. of lob, praise; vögel, pl. of vogel, bird;—sometimes Umlaut of an original a: hölle, schöpfer, schöffe, löffel, zwölf, löwe; cf. Goth. halja, tvalif, &c. In the sixteenth century we even meet mönsch for mensch, wörd for werd, island: mönch, monk, is an inorganic ö for münch; thus also könig for künig.

English and Dutch do not possess this yowel.

Swedish.  $\ddot{o}$  stands for six different sounds of the Old Norse.  $\ddot{o}=y$ , Umlaut of o, or rather u; hence Swedish  $\ddot{o}$  stands to Old Norse y in the same relation, as does the German  $\ddot{o}$  to  $\ddot{u}$ . When

<sup>1</sup> Common spelling ohne.

the Umlatt 1 was no longer distinctly felt, a new Umlaut was created directly from the it just as in German the spirit of the language produced the modern Umbut  $\bar{o}$ , when the more ancient v began to die out. Examples:—kölja, billow, O. N. bylgja; följa, to follow, O. N. fygas; körr, door (Germ. thure); kön, kin. A. S. bys ; wise. Elii. Germ. wiene ; logn, lie, Germ. luge; not. nut. O.N. czy. Where however a keeps its position in the stem of the wird, y also remains as its Umlaut. which diphthong at a very early date began to be contracted, first into o, then into a: & J, mugire, O. N. baula; lördag, Saturday, O. N. laugardage; drem, dream; stream; bout, bean; dif. deaf; 🚁, eye: 🎊, cursus: bröd, bread;—cf. Germ traum, tand, ange, lant.  $\vec{v} = e \vec{r}$ :  $d\vec{v}$ , to die;  $k \vec{o}$ , hay;  $m \vec{o}$ , may; ō, island : 🌬: hear ; 🏧 , ear : 🎰 , to tug ; rōk, reek ; öde, desertus Germ. öde . 🏻 🌣 = 🐼 : 🎢 öra, ducere Germ. führen) ; dömma, to deem, judicare: &n, preces; gron, green; hona, hen; mödraf, mothers, pl. of m. der ; fotter, feet, pl. of fot, foot. ö=io∶frö₁ seed: 485, snow; & 54t, breast.  $\bar{s} = \dot{\epsilon}$ , only in the reduplication of the verb : [51], [51], [51], = O. N. [51], [51].

Danish. Though Danish grammarians distinguish two sounds of the vowel  $\tilde{v}$  = namely one like the French 'eu fermé' in perand the other like the French 'en ouvert' in reure, cour-the former marked . the latter o-we need not keep up this distinction, because it is not warranted by etymology; and we therefore write always ö. ö=0. N. ν: κῦν, κῶν, where we find the Umlaut in the singular already, while Swedish, with greater nicety and better tact, uses the Umlaut to denote the plural of son, and bon. bean ; dör, door, nö l, nut ; bölge, billow ; fölge, follow.  $\ddot{o}=0$ . N. i: tommer, O. N. timbr; solr, O. N. silfr. o=0. N. o, Umlaut of a: born, pl. of barn, child.  $\ddot{o} = 0$ . N. an: dröm, dream; ström, stream; lörerdag, Saturdav; bröd, bread; död, death; nöd, need,  $\ddot{o} = 0$ . N. ey: döe, to die; hō, hay; mö, maid; &c., see Swedish. ö, island; höre, hear, audire; öre, ear; rör, reed, &c., cf. Swedish. ö=0. N. oe: före, to lead, Germ. führen; bön, preces; grön, green; höne, hen; böger, libri; dömme, to deem.  $\ddot{o} = \alpha$ :  $s\ddot{o}$ , sea, O. N. sær, Sw. sjö; frö, seed, O. N. fræ, frio.

#### u

German. Before double consonants n represents the Old German short vowel: und, and; mund, mouth; krumm, crooked; kunst, art; brust, breast; burg, castle; huld, grace. Before a single consonant it is the ancient long vowel: zūg, trūg, flūg,

tugend, or Schwächung of the ancient diphthong uo: rūm', glory,=ruom; klūg, prudent,=kluog; fūß, foot,=fuot; hūn, hen; blūt, blood; fūr, pret. of fūren; schūf, pret. of schaffen. Exceptions:—spūr = M. H. Germ. spor, track; zūber = O. H. Germ.

zuipar, pail.

This vowel is not found so frequently as the rest in English. words of Tentonic origin. Before a single vowel its sound is a medium between the German ö and o, whilst the modern Dutch u in pronunciation resembles the French u. Examples:—dun, run, sun, shrub, tub, up, tug, hut, shut. In the verb to bury it has the sound of the German short e; and in the termination bury, as Canterbury, Salisbury, Tilbury, it is almost entirely dropped in pronunciation. The tendency in this case of the u inclining towards the e is already testified by the mediæval mode of spelling Canterberiensis, Saresberiensis, Tilberiensis. (Concerning the sound of u in busy, vide sub lit. i.) Before double consonants u shows the same tendencies in its sound: summer, gulf, burden, turf, hunger, thunder. It assumes a long sound before a consonant followed by the e mute; in which case it might be rendered in German by ju, e.g. mule, mute, duke, to mure, plume (mulus, mutus, dux, murus, pluma), and other words of exclusively Latin and French derivation. The same words we find in Middle High German with the vowel #-mil, mir; in Modern German with the vowel au-maul, mauer; but even the Middle High German dialect admits of a vowel in as the Umlaut of il, e.g. gemiure, Germ. gemäuer. This phænomenon, according to which and u when succeeded by an e assume the sounds of ei and iu, we shall have to consider more closely elsewhere. Words which had the long u in Anglo-Saxon already did not preserve that vowel in English, but converted it into ou, since the sound of u had then yielded to the long o=00; hence A. S. bu, mus, lus, hus, sur, ure, cu, brun, Eng. thou, mouse, louse, house, sour, our, cow, brown.

Dutch. The Dutch u in short syllables resembles the English in gun, but, though it has at the same time a shade of the French u in it. It may occur before single and double consonants. Examples:—dun, thin; druk, pressure (Germ. druck); brug, bridge; put, pit; zullen, debere, shall; kunnen, posse (Germ. können); kussen, to kiss; schuld, debt; zuster, sister; drukken, premere (Germ. drücken); rukken, dimovere (Germ. rücken). It does not occur before the liquids m, n, r. It fluctuates between o and u in vollen, vullen.

<sup>1</sup> Common spelling ruhm, huhn, fuhr, &c.

The long a occurs very rarely, but before r exclusively. In Plemish it is spelt ve, in Dutch vo. Most of the ancient words which contained an v have in modern Dutch, replaced this vowel by the diphthong vi prenounced like German ev. English oi), a circumstance which shows here, in the same manner as in the ancient dialects, the fluctuation of sound between in, v, and v. The pronunciation of v resembles most nearly that of the French v. Examples:—duar, dear; duar, duro Germ. danern); muns, murus (Germ. mauer, ; unr, hour Germ. uhr; runr, fire; runr, sour; huren, to hire; geburen, rustici Germ. bauern).

8wedish. u stands for the Old Norse short and long vowels of the same sound. 1, O. N. u : : furo, fir; gud, God; full, full; kull, nest; kurra, to murmur, Germ. knurren, Dutch knorren); rubba, to rob 'Germ. rauben; skuld, guilt Germ. schuld); guld, gold; rumpa, tail; ulf, wolf; pret.of verbs: krupo, crept, repserunt; klufco, cleft, fiderunt; bruto, broke, fregerunt; spunno, span, neverunt. (2) = O. N. ú: ful, turpis (cf. foul); mur, wall (Germ. mauer); nur, sour; rum, room; skum, scum; fluga, fly (Germ.

fliege,; brud, bride; mus, mouse; hus, house.

Danish. This vowel often keeps its place in Danish where the other dialects weaken it into o. It stands for O. N. u (o): hul, hollow; kul, coal; dum, dumb; uge, week (Germ. woche); gud, God (Germ. gott); guld, gold; muld, mould; fugl, bird (Germ. vogel); mund, mouth. = O. N. a: dug, dugge, dew; hugge, to hew (Germ. hauen). = O. N. ú, and spelt uu before liquids and s: fuul, foul; bruun, brown; skuum, scum; muur, wall (Germ. mauer); brud, bride (Germ. braut); hud, hide (Germ. haut). At the end of words: drue, grape (Germ. traube); bue, bow; flue, fly; frue, Germ. frau; due, dove (Germ. taube); lue, flame (Germ. lohe).

# ü (ue), y

German.  $\ddot{u}$ , Umlaut of u: krummen from krumm, crooked; bürger from burg, castle; künstlich, adj. of kunst, art; huener¹, pl. of hūn, hen, &c. The Middle High German  $\ddot{u}$  as Umlaut of o is dropped and supplanted by  $\ddot{o}$ , so that the derivative forms of holz, gold, rogel, are hölzern, golden, gevögel: gülden, though occasionally used in poetry, may be considered obsolete. The words vor and für (vor-sehung, für-sehung), tôr, gate, and tuer², door, are still fluctuating. hoefisch, hoeflich³, courteous, and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Common spelling hühner, huhn. <sup>2</sup> Common spelling thor, thür. <sup>3</sup> höftech, höftech.

hubsch, pretty, originally expressed the same meaning, both

being derived from hof, court.

The spelling is fluctuating between i and i in the words hilfe, hülfe, help; giltig, gültig, valid; gebirge, gebürge, mountain-range; wirken, würken, to work; sprichwort, sprüchwort, proverb. Grimm decides in favour of gebirge, hilfe, sprichwort, and gillig, because they are analogous to the Old German forms: würken he considers the more preferable orthography on account of the Gothic vaurkjan, though in Old High German already wurchan and wirkan are used indiscriminately. The vowel y is in German superfluous; and though it may be used for foreign words, its sound can easily be rendered by i. The Romans already wrote and spoke silva for sylva, and it may therefore be considered as something hyper-classical when German scholars affectedly pronounce suntax, sustem, for syntax, system. Still more pedantic is the manner in which German authors strive to keep distinct the little monosyllables sein (suus) and seyn (esse), which are now both rendered by sein, since they have the same sound and can be traced to the same form sin in Middle High German.

English. This dialect does not know the Umlaut of u, and therefore does not require the vowel ü. The Umlaut of the Anglo-Saxon u was y, and this is still preserved in sound at least if not in spelling. Hence A. S. müs, lüs, pl. mys, lys; Eng. mouse, louse, pl. mice, lice. The letter y therefore replaces in the English of the present day Anglo-Saxon vowels of a different kind. y=i, originating in the Anglo-Saxon termination ig: any, A. S. enig; holy, A. S. hálig; ivy, A. S. ifig; worthy, A. S. wyrðig. y=i, German ei: by, apud (Germ. bei); my, meus (Germ. mein); thy, tuus (Germ. dein). y=\( \psi : \text{why}, \text{cur}, A. S. \text{hwy}, \text{Goth. hoe}, \text{O. H. Germ. huiu. } y=\( \psi : \text{sky}, A. S. \text{scia}, O. N. \text{sky}, \text{ y=A. S. e6: fly, volare, A. S. fleógan, Germ. fliegen; fly, musca, A. S. fleóge, Germ. fliege; shy, Germ. scheu; sly, Germ. schlau. y ori-

ginating in g: eye, A. S. eage, Germ. auge.

Dutch does not recognise either the vowels ii or y.

Swedish. The vowel y takes in sound and meaning the place of the German ü. It therefore is chiefly used for the Old Norse y Umlaut of u: fylla, to fill; gyllen, golden (cf. Germ. gülden); mynning, ostium (Germ. mündung); bygga, to build; rygg, back (Germ. rücken); bycka, luck; nyckel, key; stycke, piece (Germ. stück); skyldig, guilty (Germ. schuldig). y=O.N. J: rymma, abire (Germ. räumen); snyte, snout (Germ. schnauze); hysa, domo recipere (Germ. behausen). y=O.N. J, contracted from iu, io: dyr, dear; fyr, four; krypa, to creep; flyga, to fly; flyta, fluere,

to float. At the end of words: bly, lead (Germ. blei); fly, to

flee; hy, hue; ny, new; sky, nubes, sky.

Danish y appears under the same conditions as the Swedish. y=0. N. y:fyr, fir; gylden, golden; hyld, alder (Germ. holder); yngre, junior (Germ. jünger); synd, sin (Germ. sünde); lykke, luck; kysse, kiss; bryst, breast; dyd=dygd, virtue (Germ. tugend).  $y=\emptyset$ , O. N. Umlaut of u:myre, mere, lake; syd, south (Germ. süden). y=0. N.  $\emptyset$ , condensed iu, io:syn, sight; dyr, dear; dyr, deer (Germ. thier); fyr, fire; flyve, to fly; klyve, to cleave. At the end of words: bly, lead (Germ. blei); by, town; ny, new; sky, sky.

#### DIPHTHONGS.

The different double vowels in English, Dutch and Danish, have already been examined, since we arranged them under the simple vowels aa, ee, ii, oo, uu, as identical with â, ê, î, ô, î. The diphthongs properly so called are so different in the different modern dialects, and represent ancient vowels so divergent in form and meaning, that we consider it advisable here to abandon our plan of grouping the dialects together under each vowel, and to arrange all the different diphthongs under each dialect respectively.

#### German.

ai. It is merely an orthographical whim which retains the ai in several words, the sound of which might quite as well be rendered by ei: mai, May; Main, the river Mein; hain, grove; saite, chord; waise, orphan; Kaiser, Emperor; but getraide and getreide, corn; waize and weize, wheat; whence it becomes evident that there is no difference of sound. In waise, orphan, and weise, a sage; saite, chord, and seite, side, the different spelling is some help for the eye, and nothing more. hain might be justified as originating in the ancient hagan, hagin, just as Rein-hart from Regin-hart, Mein-fried from Megin-fried.

au. This diphthong represents three different vowels-M. H.

Germ. a, ou, aw.

au = M. H. Germ. &: bau, building; sau, a sow; faul, foul; raum, room; braun, brown; sauer, sour; schauer, shower; haufe, heap; sauge, suck; braut, bride; haut, skin, hide; laut, loud; aus, out; haus, house; laus, louse; maus, mouse. But the M. H. Germ. & and n\u00eu, thou, now, remain & and n\u00eun.

au=M. H. Germ. ou: baum, tree, beam; saum, seam; traum, dream; laub, leaf; taub, deaf; auge, eye, A. S. eáge, M. H. Germ. ouge.

au=M. H. Germ. a, aw: blau, blue; grau, grey; flau, flaw;

M. H. Germ. grá, gráwe; blá, bláwe, &c.

A reference to the Dutch language will more fully explain the nature of the au from u, and au from ou. For the former the Dutch has ú, for the latter ó; hence, Dutch rúm, M. H. Germ. rúm, Germ. raum; Dutch dróm, M. H. Germ. troum, Germ. trum; cf. súge, sauge, and óge, auge. Thus, then, German mixes up two different vowels which Dutch still keeps distinct. Even German prefers before certain consonants the vowel o to au in place of the M. H. Germ. ou; e.g. lőn¹, reward; bőne, bean; flóg, flew; stró, straw; hőch, high; nót, need, &c.

äu is Umlaut of au. Examples:—sau, a sow, pl. säue; raum, space, room, pl. räume; baum, tree, pl. bäume; haus, house, pl. häuser; auge, eye, diminutive äuglein. äu, the modern, stands in the same relation to eu, the more ancient Umlaut, as does ä to e (see sub litt. ä, e).

ei stands for M.H. Germ. i and ei, Dutch ij = i, and  $ee = e^i$ ;

as au for M. H. Germ. if and ou.

To test the nature of the German ei a reference to the parallel words in Dutch is sometimes sufficient, e. g. reif, hoop, Dutch

reep; reif, ripe, Dutch rijp.

Examples of ei=M. H. Germ. 1: sei, sit; frei, free; meile, mile; weile, while; mein, dein, sein, meus, tuus, suus; wein, wine; reif, ripe; seide, silk; seite, side; eis, ice; eisen, iron; weise, wise; feind, fiend; reich, rich.

ei=M. H. Germ. ei: reif, hoop; ei, egg; heil, heal; heim, home; bein, bone; stein, stone; klein, little; eiche, oak; beide,

both; geiße, goat; weiß, white; weiß, novi; heiß, hot.

In some cases the spelling is wavering between ei and eu (M. H. Germ. i and iu): heirat and heurat, heint and heunt. There is indeed a difference in the meaning of zeigen, to show, and zeugen, to bring forth, gignere; but it is sometimes difficult to keep them distinct, as in the expression 'Freundschaft bezeigen' and 'bezeugen', which are all but identical. It is however altogether erroneous to write, as is commonly done, ereignen, to happen, ereignis, event, instead of eräugnen, eräugnis, O. H. Germ. aroucnissi. The fluctuating orthography in heirat, heurat, marriage, and heint, heunt, hac nocte, we find already in the M. H. Germ. hirât and hiurât, hint and hiunt.

<sup>1</sup> lohn, bohne, &c.

eu is also adopted in place of two Middle High German vowels, in and on. en = in: new, new (M. H. Germ. nin); hener, hoc anno M. H. Germ. hinre:; tenfel, devil; hente, hodie (M. H. Germ. hinte; lente, people; hengt, hrencht, fleust, for fliegt, hriecht, fliest, M. H. Germ. slingt, hrincht, flingt.

eu = M. H. Germ. ōu: hen, hay; streu, straw; freuen, rejoice; freude, joy.

ie. We consider this a diphthong, though it is not pronounced like i—e but i, the English ee. Examples:—dienen, to serve; bier, beer; dieb, thief; frieren, freeze; lieb, dear (cf. lief). Formed by contraction: priester, from presbyter, spiegel from speculum, fieber from febris (French spiègle, fièrre). For short in riel, much; spiel, play, &c. For Middle High German ei in the preterites schien, mied, trieb; Paradies for Paradeis. Occasionally for no, üe: mieder, M. H. Germ. mnoder, liederlich for lüederlich—sometimes lüderlich, derived from luder. As we see the ancient i occasionally lengthened into ie, so we find, vice versuie shortened into i: dirne for dierne, O. H. Germ. diorna; lichenicht for lieht, nieht; ging, hing, fing, for the reduplicate preterites gieng, hieng, fieng: the latter mode of spelling i preferable.

iu is no organic diphthong in German, and occurs only imain, pfui, exclamations for M. H. Germ. hoi, hei—pfi, pfei.

#### English.

ai. This diphthong has its origin in the A.S. äg: hail, A.S. hägel, Germ. hagel; tail, A.S. tägel, Germ. zagel; maid, A.S. mago, Germ. magd; said, dixit, A.S. sagde, Germ. sagte; main. A. S. mügen, M. H. Germ. megin (cf. M. H. Germ. mein, meit, geseit, for megin, megit, gesegit); daisy, from A.S. däges eage, day's eye, oculus diei. ai represents the A.S. eg (both eg and eg) in sail, A. S. and Germ segel; lain, A. S. and Germ. legen; rain, A.S. and Germ. regen; laid, A.S. legde, Germ. legte; again, against, A. S. and Germ. gegen. In this case the original e has been replaced by a, so that we read rain, sail, laid, instead of rein, seil, leid, an occurrence which may be explained by the fact of ai answering more closely to the sound of the contracted ai = A. S. æg in stair, from stæger. ai = A. S. ai in hail, by the side of whole (sanus, salvus), swain.  $ai = A. S. \alpha$ in hair, A. S. har; raise, A.S. rasan. This diphthong is also often met with in words of Romance origin, where it is derived

om the Latin agi, as the English ai is from the A.S. ag:

rail, fragilis.

ay is but a different mode of spelling the same diphthong at the end of words; as day from däg, way from weg, lay from legan, say from segan.

- au. This diphthong is rare and answers to the Anglo-Saxon in a few cases before the consonants gh. Examples:—daughter, A.S. döhtor; draught, A.S. dröht; aught, A.S. dwht, dwiht, O.H. Germ. iowiht.
- aw. For A. S. ag, eg, eah, af: awe, A. S. ege (cf. Goth. aggan); dawn, A. S. dagian; draw, A. S. dragan; hawk, A. S. hafoc, O. N. haukr; law, A. S. lag; saw (serra), A. S. sega; saw (vidit), A. S. seah; raw, A. S. hreaw, O. H. Germ. hrá, Germ. rô¹, rough (from A. S., O. H. Germ. ruh, Germ. rauh and rauch); strow, A.S. straw, Germ. stró².
- ea. A diphthong of frequent occurrence, and faithful to its traditions, commonly representing the A.S. eá. (1) Examples of this kind are,—beam, dream, gleam, steam, steam, seam, team; team; hear; bean, lean; cheap, heap, leap; leaf, deaf; bread, head-(heafod), dead; great, death, east. (2) ea=A.S. á: weak, A.S. wác; sweat, A.S. swát; sheath, A.S. sceáð. (3)=A.S. æ: deal, leal, tear, year, clean, mean, weapon, ready, thread, wheat. (4)

  A.S. eó: dear, cleave, breast. In most cases this diphthong as assumed the pronunciation of ee; but in certain positions, pecially before dentals, it takes the sound of the originally short ea in stěad, trěad, as bread, dread, lead: exceptions are eat and wheat.
- ei. Rare in words of Teutonic origin, and corresponding to the most heterogeneous vowels in A. S.: thus—their, A. S. para; eifer, A. S. heahfore, heafre; eight, A. S. eahta; neigh, A. S. nagan; either, A. S. ähwäder, awder, auder; neither, A. S. ahwäder, nawder.
  - ew is rather frequent, and has the diphthongal pronunciation of u, but of oo after l and r. As a rule it answers to the A.S. ow, but occasionally to other vowels, such as ô, ea, &c. Examples:—to brew, A.S. breówan; to chew, A.S. ceówan; ewe, A.S. eów; dew, A.S. deów; especially in the preterite of strong verbs, e.g. crew, A.S. creów, cantavit; grew, A.S. greów, viruit; knew, A.S. cneów, novit; blew, A.S. bleów, flavit.
    - ey. Of rare occurrence, replacing the A.S. eá and a, e.g.

eye, A.S. eage; grey, A.S. græg: prey is the French procee

ie answers to the A. S. có in fiend, friend, lief, and thief.

oa stands for A. S. & and &: boar, oar, hoar, foam, loam, grown moan, broad, goad, toad, goat, oat, oath; occasionally replaced by o, with which it is identical in pronunciation, as home for locam: the preterites of the verbs however have regularly o, never occass shone, smote, drove, &c. Even the French o has been dressed up in the English garb of oa: coach for coche, coat for cote, browch for broche, road for rote, toast for toste, coast for cote = coste.

oe is no true diphthong, but simply a long vowel, hence pronounced as o: doe, A.S. dá; foe, A.S. fá; roe, A.S. rá; toe A.S. táhe, tá; woe, A.S. wá.

In Old High German and Middle High German these word pass from the diphthong ei into the simple vowel & on account o

a following h, v, or s. (Cf. German reh, zehe, weh.)

ou answers in sound and position to the German au, and as the latter stands occasionally for Old High German ü, so also Eng—Iish ou stands for Anglo-Saxon ü or the production of u. ou=A.—S. ü: foul, our, sour, loud, out, mouth, south, mouse, louse. Cf. A.—S. fül, sür, üt, müS, müs, lüs; and Germ. faul, sauer, auß (aus), laus, maus. ou=the production of ü before ld and nd: could, should, would, bound, found, hound, ground, wound—cases in which German commonly has preserved the short u, as gebunden, gefunden, hund, grund, wunde. ou before gh represents divers Anglo-Saxon vowels: bought, emi, A. S. bohte; dough, A. S. düh, Germ. teig; though, A. S. peah; through, A. S. purh; soul from A. S. säwel, säwi, säul; four, A. S. feower.

ow. (1)=Anglo-Saxon \(\alpha w\), which is in accordance with the general rule, that A. S. \(\alpha\) becomes in English \(\delta\). To this class belong chiefly the strong verbs which have the preterite in \(\epsilon w\), as to blow, to grow, to know, to crow, to blow, A. S. bl\(\alpha\) wan, gr\(\alpha\) wan, cn\(\alpha\) wan, cr\(\alpha\) wan, bl\(\delta\) wan. Exceptions:—grow, A. S. growan; own, \(\delta\) gen (transition of g into w). (2)=A. S. \(\delta\): bow, A. S. b\(\delta\)gen; bower, A. S. b\(\delta\); forwn, A. S. br\(\delta\)n; fowl, A. S. c\(\delta\); down, O. N. d\(\delta\)n; how, A. S. h\(\delta\); town, A. S. t\(\delta\)n; fowl, A. S. fugel, f\(\delta\)l.

ue. Replacing Anglo-Saxon eo or ea and i, but very rare: hue, A. S. hiw; rue, A. S. hreów; true, A. S. treówe; Tuesday, A. S. Tiwesdäg.

eo, eu, oi, oy occur in Romance words only.

#### Dutch.

ai. No independent diphthong, but merely a different mode of spelling the vowel á, Belgian ae, Dutch aa, as hair for haer, haer

an. This diphthong is softer than its German relative, so that its sound might almost be rendered in German by  $a-\ddot{u}w$ ; but it occurs in few words only, and these mostly of a foreign origin. Examples:—paus, pope; dauw, dew; lauwer, laurel.

ei. The Dutch language has two diphthongs, ei and ij, resembling the German ei, English i, in sound, yet neither of the former agreeing quite with the latter, so that their pronunciation offers no slight difficulty to a foreigner. ei comes nearest to the German ei, and, like the latter, chiefly represents the Gothic diphthong  $\acute{ai}$ , whilst ij, the doubled i, allows the element of the e to prevail, and its sound might therefore be rendered by German ei pronounced in rapid succession. In its pronunciation, as well a derivation, it is the representative of the Gothic diphthong ei.

Examples:—heil, hail, whole (Germ. heil); rein, pure (Germ. rein); weinig, little (Germ. wenig); eik, oak (Germ. eiche); beide, both (Germ. beide); leiden, to lead (Germ. leiten); geit, goat (Germ. geiß). While in some words however, the ei has been preserved, it has in others given way to é; as for instance in the Ablaut of some strong verbs, as néd, léd. From the fact that words ending in heid form their plural in heden, as dapperheid (valour), dapperheden, it would appear that monosyllabic forms favour the diphthong, while the penult prefers the vowel é. In some words this diphthong has, like the English ai, and the Middle High German ei, its origin in the softened eg, as zeil for zegel, sail; meid, maid; zeide, said, dixit. For e, the Umlaut of a, we find it in heir, army (Germ. heer); meir, sea (Germ. meer); einde, end; peinzen, to think (Fr. penser).

eu. In pronunciation it approaches the French eu, German  $\ddot{o}$ ; as to derivation, it is a doubtful diphthong, replacing  $\ddot{o}$  and  $\ddot{e}$ , even oe and  $\vec{u}$ .

eu=o: deur, door; geur, smell; keur, election, choice; euvel, evil; kreupel, cripple; jeugd, youth; deugen (Germ. taugen), deugd (Germ. tugend).

en=e: neus, nose (Germ. nase). For long vowels: steunen, to groan (Germ. stoenen); treuren, to mourn (Germ. trauren); rreugd (Germ. freude), beuke, bocke, beech (Germ. buche). Formerly this diphthong was more generally in use, and in Belgium

especially, in the place of the Dutch 6, as zeun for zoon (son), deurpel for dorpel, &c.

- ie. A diphthong of frequent occurrence, equivalent to the Middle High German iu and ie, and the Modern German ie. Examples:—wiel, wheel; bier, beer; dier, deer, animal; tien, to draw (Germ. ziehen); vier, four; dienen, to serve; dief, thief; lief, dear (Germ. lieb); diep, deep; riet, reed; siek, sick; dier, dear (M. H. Germ. diur); vier, fire (M. H. Germ. viure); stieren, to steer (M. H. Germ. stiuren); vrient, friend (M. H. Germ. vriunt). In strong verbs, pres. sing.: biet, offert (M. H. Germ. biut); vliet, fluit (M. H. Germ. vliut); tiet, ducit (M. H. Germ. ziut).
- Oe. In pronunciation and derivation like English oo, Germ. 1, answering to the Gothic 6, Middle High German 10. Examples:—stoel, stool (Germ. stûl); vloer, floor (Germ. flûr); doen, to do (Germ. tûn); broek, brook (Germ. bruch); broeder, brother, bruder; moet, mood (Germ. mût); bloet, blood (Germ. blût); moeder, mother (Germ. mutter); soeken, to seek (Germ. suchen); roede, rod (Germ. rûte); groeten, to greet (Germ. grueßen); goet, good (Germ. gût).
- ou. This ou, like au, stands for the German au, slightly modified in sound: while the latter is pronounced more deliberately than the German, the former is enounced with greater rapidity, so as to resemble more closely perhaps the English ou in house. Examples:—howen, to hew (Germ. hauen); vrouw, lady (Germ. frau); houden, to hold; koud, cold; oud, old; would, wood (Germ. wald); hout (Germ. holz); zout, salt.
- ue. Used in Belgium as a different mode of spelling &, e. framuer for muur, wall.

ui has the sound of the German en, with which it also generally corresponds in derivation, though it often represents the German an, Middle High German û. Examples:—buil, tumor, bile (Germ. beule); huilen, to howl (Germ. heulen); vuil (foul (Germ. faul); zuil (Germ. sänle, column); ruim, room (Germ. raum); schuim, scum (Germ. schaum); dnif, dove (Germ. taube); stuiven (Germ. stäuben); duivel (Germ. teufel); struik, shrub; bruid, bride; huid, hide; kruid, herb; luid, loud; huis, house; mnis, mouse; luis, louse. Cf. German stranch, braut, haut, kraut, laut, haus, mans, laus.

¹ In these examples the diphthong has its origin in the contraction of the words halden, kald, ald, wald, zalt, &c.

#### Swedish.

This dialect is, strictly speaking, deprived of diphthongs altorether; for the Old Norse ei and au, are condensed into e and ö and ju. The only combination looking like a diphthong concentrates the accent on the u, leaving the i merely as a preluding sound, resembling herein the English u in tune, June, July, or the Gothic ju in jus, juk, the German juli, juni; but altogether distinct from the Gothic diphthong in in iup, or the Old Norse in liufr. The i or j in this peculiar position participates in the nature of a consonant, half-way at least; whence it is rightly ranked with the semi-vowels. From this fact again may be explained the total suppression in pronunciation of consonants preceding j or their combinations in a mixed sound; hence hjul, ljuf, ljud-sound, jul, juf, jud; whilst in Old Norse we have the diphthong hiol, linfr, hliod. Examples: - hjul, wheel; jul, Christmas; djur, animal (Germ. thier, deer; ljuf, lief (Germ. lieb); tjuf, thief (Germ. dieb); djup, deep (Germ. tief); ljuga, to lie (Germ. lügen); skjuda, to shoot (Germ. schießen). Swedish ju is never weakened into jo: where this latter form appears it does so by Brechung. je is more easily proved by forms such as tjena, to serve (Germ. dienen); tjenst, service (Germ. dienst), for the Old Norse Schwächung io in piona, pionust. Other diphthongs do not exist in Swedish; for ja, jo, jö, must be considered as belonging to Brechung.

#### Danish.

The Old Norse diphthongs ei and au have in Danish experienced the same fate as in Swedish, dwindling down into the meagre e and  $\ddot{o}$  sounds; and iu, ou, are condensed into y, rarely replaced by ju, je, which can hardly be considered true diphthongs, since the accent is concentrated on the final u and e. But while ancient diphthongs disappear, new ones spring out of the fertile soil of language, owing their origin, as in English, chiefly to the vocalization of g and v into i and u. Thus the Danish language has established three new diphthongs, au, ei,  $\ddot{o}i$ , which are wanting in Swedish, and impart to the otherwise monotonous vocalism of the Danish language something of a cuphonic change. To write and pronounce av, ej and  $\ddot{o}j$ , instead of the true diphthongs, Grimm rightly considers a retrograde movement, depriving the Danish language of one of the few media of variation of sound that are at its disposal.

- au. As we have just mentioned, this diphthong is developed out of av, especially when occurring before g and s. Thus Grimm takes the preterite taug of the verb tie, tacere, as the condensed form of a weak preterite tagde (cf. O. N. þagði, þegja), and the adj. taus, taciturnus, the contraction of a more ancient tare, tagse (cf. Swedish varse, vilse. &c.); haug, pascuum, from have (O. N. hagi, Sw. hage), laug, law, for lav, lag (O. N. lag); faur from faver, fuger (cf. Eng. fair from fäger). In many other words the v touches very closely on the u without however being quite transformed. Examples:—ave, discipline; mave, stomach (Germ. magen); ravn, raven. But, after all, this diphthong must be considered of rare occurrence.
- ei. It is more frequent than the preceding diphthong. Examples:—dei, dough (Sw. deg, Germ. teig); sei, show (Sw. seg); vei, way (Sw. väg, Germ. weg); eie, to own (Sw. ega, cf. Germ. eigen); feie, to polish, Sw. fægja, Germ. fegen); veie, to weigh, (Sw. vëga, Germ. wiegen); seil, sail (O. N. sëgl, Germ. segel); leir, lair (Sw. läger, M. H. Germ. läger). It will be interesting from the preceding examples to observe, that while Danish and English prefer the contraction of eq into the diphthong ei (ai), Swedish and German preserve the old form eq in its integrity. On the other hand, Danish retains eq in words where English contracts it, as negl, nail; regn, rain; cf. Germ. nagel and regert.
- öi. This diphthong is historically the same as ei, owing its origin to the condensation of g and its preceding vowel. The same remarks therefore we have under ei will hold good for the diphthong  $\ddot{v}i$ . Examples:— $fl\ddot{v}i$ , flew (Sw. flög, Germ. flog);  $h\ddot{o}$ , high (Sw. hög, Germ. hoch);  $\ddot{v}ie$ , eye (Sw. öga, Germ. auge)  $pl\ddot{v}ie$ , to plough (Sw. plöga, Germ. pflügen).
- ju stands for Old Norse iu in but few words: hjul (wheel) jul (feast), and shjul (latebra)—in all other words ju is condensed into y, so that for the Swedish djur, tjuf, djup, deer, thief, deep (Germ. thier, dieb, tief), we have in Danish dyr, tyv, dyb. Here again Swedish and German show some analogy on the one, Danish and English on the other hand. Swedish preserves the old diphthong iu almost intact, German renders it, at least in spelling, by the Schwächung ie, while Danish and English condense it into the i sound  $(=\hat{e})$ .

ou occurs in but very few words: broute, braute, to boast; ploug, an obsolete mode of spelling for plov, plough; toug, tow (Sw. tog).

The preceding list of examples will sufficiently tell how in Danish too, since the organic diphthongs of the Old Norse dialect

have disappeared, these full sonorous vowel sounds are but exceptionally found; whence Danish vocalism suffers of a certain thinness or spareness which Swedish, though entirely devoid of diphthongs, displays less sensibly, because it has more successfully sheltered the full vowels a and u, which in Danish again had greatly to yield to the deterioration into e and o.

#### TRIPHTHONGS.

These vocalic combinations belong, among Modern Teutonic dialects, to Dutch exclusively. They may be considered as diphthongs having one of the vowels lengthened or doubled. Examples: -aauw, pronounced like au with a short rest on the vowel a, as in paauw, pea-cock; laauw, luke-warm (Germ. law); aai, the diphthong ai with a lengthened and i hardly audible; kraai, crow; fraai, fair; eeuw, in which e is lengthened and w becomes more audible than in the diphthong eu; leeuw, lion; sneeuw, snow; ieuw might in German be rendered by iiiw, the i hardly perceptible: nieuw, new; kieuw, gill.

The insertion of j in Danish.—The insertion of j before a vowel Which regularly occurs after the consonants q, k, sk, and occasionally after other consonants, must be kept distinct from the Brechung and the organic diphthongs on which we have already cated. Before a, aa, o, u, and e in Danish, the consonants k and g are always hard, as in the English words cow, gown; and order to produce a double sound, as in the English cure, a j ust be inserted, e.g. skjald, bard; kjolo, coat; skjule, to con-

al; gjaldt, valuit, cost; gjéd, goat; gjórde, made.
Thus then the Old Norse g, k, and sk, in gaukr, kaup, skaut, ust have been audible until the gradual modification of the wel into ö influenced the pronunciation of the preceding connant too. In Swedish this affection of the consonant is marked its pronunciation, whence the sound of gök, köp, sköt, might be rendered in German by tschök, tschöp, and schöt; while the Danish language adopted a particular mode of spelling and renders a sound almost similar to the Swedish in the forms gjög, 50b, skjöd. That the whole difference consists in nothing but a different representation of the same sound, may be further Concluded from the fact that even in Danish the simple k and g are preferred before ä, ö, y, and i, as gög, köb, sköd, and kär, kön, Köbenhaven, instead of kjär, kjön, Kjöbenhaven; and that it is acknowledged to be erroneous to insert the j when the primitive Word has ka, ko, ga, go, &c. without j: e. g. kjämbe for kämbe, to

fight, would be a fault, because the original word is kamp; so also kjumme for kumme, to comb, from kum comb.

Now whether we consider the modification of the vowel owing to the preceding consonant, or the softening of the consonant arising from the modified vowel, thus much is certain, and can be proved by examples from the Old Teutonic dialects,—that certain consonants, and especially the consonants we have mentioned above, exercise a modifying influence on the succeeding vowel. Thus Rask teaches us to pronounce the Icelandic  $\hat{e}$  after g, k, and sk = ie, and it is a fact that in the sixteenth century already the spelling ie for é was introduced, e.g. giefa for géfa, gift; kiem for kem, come, venio; skiera for skera, shear. Still more interesting is it to trace this tendency of vocalic modification as far back as Anglo-Saxon, where after sc (=sk) regularly, and after g occasionally, it is optional to write sceal, shall, debet, or scal; sceacun, to shake, or scacan; sceare, to shear or scare; sceat (=sheath) or scat; scet (shoe) and sct. (Mark the difference of the double vowels ea, eo and the diphthongs ea, eo, and that it would be a mistake to write scead, sceo, for scead, sceo.) Here the vowel e=i was inserted under the influence of the preceding sc, as j in Danish after g, k, sk; and vice versa, the pronunciation of the softened guttural in the English shall, shake, share, shoe, may have arisen under the softening influence of the modified vowel ea for a, which must be kept altogether distinct from the Anglo-Saxon Brechung ea and the diphthong eá.

# CONSONANTS.

## PHYSIOLOGICAL ALPHABET1.

Places.		BREATHS.	CHECKS.			
a mayor.	Hard. Soft.		Trilled.	Hard Soft, Na		Nasal.
1. Glottis	'h hand 'h loch  y ich, G. s rice s sharp th breath f life w which	'h tage, G. 'h tage, G. 'y yea  z to rise  z pleasure  dh breathe  v live  w quell, G.  b with	÷	k (kh) ch (chh) t (th) t (th) p (ph)	g (gh) j (jh) d (dh) d (dh) b (bh)	й (ng) й (ny) п
		Continuæ.	`	rohibitivæ	sive Exp	olosivæ.

As will appear from the preceding table, consonants may be classified according to the organs which produce them, and according to the duration of the sound. If they are produced by the opening or closing of the organs, their sound will last only while this transaction is taking place and it is incapable of being prolonged: such consonants are called *Checks* or *Mutes* (Prohibitivæ sive Explosivæ). Or they are produced so that the organs do not momentarily open or close, but merely modify their relative position and allow the sound to be prolonged at pleasure: such consonants are called *Breaths* or *Spirants* (Continuæ).

<sup>1</sup> Max Müller, Lectures, ii. p. 152.

According to the organs which are chiefly active in producing the different consonants, we classify these as gutturals, palatals, linguals, dentals, and labials. If produced by a greater effort of the organs, they will be hard (tenues); by a less effort, soft (mediæ); when accompanied with a breath, tenues and mediæ will make aspirates.

Spirants again may be guttural, dental, nasal, palatal, labial

and lingual (liquids).

Thus a great variety of sounds is produced which but few languages possess in its unlimited richness. Among the Aryan languages Sanskrit has the most complete system of consonants, which we are able to appreciate by comparing the following paradigm of Sanskrit consonants with those of the Primitive and Gothic languages.

Sanskrit.										
PROHIBITIVÆ. CONTINUÆ.										
Not As	pirated.	Aspir	ated.							
Tenues.	Mediæ.	Tenues.	Mediæ.	Sibilants.	Nasals.	Liquids.				
Gutt. k Pal. ch Ling. f Dent. t Lab. p	g j d d b	kh chh (h th ph	gk jh dh dk bh	: ḥ (χ) s sh s : ḥ (φ)	я Я В Я	k y r l				

Primitive <sup>2</sup> .										
	Рконп	BITIVÆ.	C	CONTINUA						
Not Asy	oirated.	Aspi	rated.							
Tenues.	Mediæ.	Tenues.	Mediæ.	Sibilants.	Nasals.	Liquids.				
Gutt. k Pal Ling Dent. t Lab. p	g   d b	:: :: ::	gk   dk bk	::		 y r 				

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Comp. Max Müller, Lectures, ii. p. 130 sqq.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> We have arranged in these tables the Primitive and Gothic consonants in accordance with the commonly adopted arrangement of Sanskrit consonants, and this for the sake of uniformity and comparison; but when treating on the Teutonic con-

			Gothic	•			
	Рвоні	BITIVÆ.			Continua	:.	
Not As	pirated.	Aspi	rated.				
Tenues.	Mediæ.	Tenues.	Mediæ.	Sibilants.	Nasals.	Liquids.	
Gutt. k Pal Ling Dent. t Lab. p	g   d b	··· ·· th	:: :: th	  8 z	g (ng) n	h j r l	

#### Grimm's Law 1.

'If the same roots or the same words exist in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Celtic, Slavonic, Lithuanian, Gothic, and High German, then, wherever the Hindus and the Greeks pronounce an aspirate, the Goths and Low Germans generally, the Saxons, Anglo-Saxons, Frisians, &c., pronounce the corresponding soft check, the Old High Germans the corresponding hard check. We thus arrive at the first formula:—

I.	(1)	Greek and Sanskrit	KH	TH	$\mathbf{PH}$
	(2)	Gothic, &c. (Low German)	G	$\mathbf{D}$	${f B}$
	(3)	Old High German	K	${f T}$	P

'Secondly, if in Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, &c., we find a soft check, then we find a corresponding hard check in Gothic, a corresponding breath in Old High German. This gives us the second formula:—

II. (4	) Greek, &c.	•				G	$\mathbf{D}$	В
(i	Gothic .					K	${f T}$	P
ïč	Ö Old High (	<del>J</del> er	ma	n		$\mathbf{CH}$	${f z}$	$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Ph})$

'Thirdly, when the six first-named languages show a hard consonant, the Gothic shows the corresponding breath, Old High German the corresponding soft check. In Old High Ger-

sonants specially, we shall keep up the following divisions and discuss them in this order:—Liquids. l, m, n, r. Spirants, v, w, s, z (= soft s), j (= y in year), h. Mutes: (1) Labials, b, p, f, v, ph, bh, &c.; (2) Dentals, d, t, th ( $\flat$ ), dh ( $\delta$ ), z (High German aspirated dental, z, soft z); and (3) Gutturals, g, k, c (= k), ch, &c.

1 Max Müller, Lectures, ii. p. 199 sqq.

man, however, the law holds good with regard to the dental series only, while in the guttural and labial series the Old High German documents generally exhibit h and f, instead of the corresponding media g and h. This gives us the third formula:—

Proceeding to the illustration of the different formulæ, we begin with the first class, which in Sanskrit shows the aspirate gh, dh bh; Greek  $\chi$ ,  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$ ; Latin fluctuating between soft checks and guttural and labial spiritus. This class must in English, Anglo-Saxon, Gothic, and all Low German dialects be represented by the corresponding mediæ g, d, b, whilst High German chooses for the same purpose the tenues k, t, p.

I. (1) KH. Greek χ; Sanskrit gk, k; Latin k, f.
G. Gothic g; Latin gv, g, v.
K. Old High German k.

Examples :—Engl. goose. Goth. gans, Germ. gans, O. H. Germ. kans, Sansk. hansa, Gr. χήν, Lat. anser (= hanser). Engl. yesterday, Germ gestern, Goth. gistra, O. H. Germ. këstar, Sansk. hyas, Gr. χθές, Lat. heri. Engl. garden, Germ. garten, Goth. gards, O. H. Germ. karto, Gr. χόρτος, Lat. hortus. Sansk. lih, Gr. λείχω, Lat. lingo, Goth. láigó, O. H. Germ. lékôm. Corresponding to gall (bile), we find Gr. χολή, Lat. fel, instead of hel. Engl. to drag, Goth. drag-an, O. H. Germ. trak-an, Lat. trah-ere. Gr. έχ-ειν, Goth. áig-an, O. H. Germ. eik-an.

(2) TH. Greek θ, φ; Sanskrit dh; Latin f.
 D. Gothic d; Latin d, b.
 T. Old High German t.

Examples:—Engl. daughter, Goth. dauhtar, Germ. tochter, O. H. Germ. tohtar, Gr. θυγάτηρ. Engl. door, Goth. daur, Germ. and O. H. Germ. tor, Gr. θύρα. Engl. deer, A. S. deor, Goth. dius, Germ. tier, O. H. Germ. tior, Gr. θήρ (φήρ), Lat. fera (wild beast). Engl. to dare, Goth. ga-daursan, O. H. Germ. tarran, Gr. θαρτεῖν, Sansk. dhrish. To Engl. doom (judgment), Goth. dom-s, corresponds Gr. θήμις (law). Engl. mid-dle, Germ. mit-te, Goth. mid-is, O. H. Germ. mit-i, Lat. med-ius, Sansk. madh-ya. Engl. rood, Germ. rul-e (virga), A. S. rôd (crux), O. H. Germ. ruot-a (virga), Sansk ruh = rudh (crescere).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The examples are partly taken from Max Müller, l. c., partly from other sources.

(3) PH. Greek φ; Sansk. bh; Latin f.
 B. Gothie b; Latin b.
 P. Old High German p.

Examples:—Engl. to bear, Goth. baira, O. H. Germ. piru, Gr.  $\phi \in \omega$ , Lat. fero, Sansk. bhri. Engl. brother, Goth. brothar, O. H. Germ. pruoder, Lat. frater, Sansk. bhratri. Engl. to break, Goth. brokan, O. H. Germ. prechan, Lat. frangere, Sansk. bhanj. Germ. bir., A. S. beom, O. H. Germ. pim, Gr.  $\phi \circ \omega$ , Lat. fu (in fui), Sansk. bhavámi. Engl. beech, Goth. bôka, Lat. fagus (cf. Gr.  $\phi \circ \gamma \circ \omega$ ), O. H. Germ. puocha.

The second class comprises examples which, for the mediæ g, d, in Sanskrit and Greek words, show the corresponding tenues t, p, in English, Gothic, &c., and the aspirates kh (ch), th and  $p \ge 1$  in Old High German.

II. (4) G. Sanskrit, Greek, Latin g. K. Gothic k. KH. Old High German ch.

Examples:—Engl. to know, Germ. kennen and können, A.S. cneow, Goth. kan, O. H. Germ. chan, Lat. gnosco, Gr. γνῶμι, Sansk. jnά. Eng kin (relationship), Goth. kuni, O. H. Germ. chuni, Lat. genus, Gr. γένος, Sansk. játi (from jan, to be born). Engl. knee, A.S. cneó, Goth. kniu, O. H. Germ. chniu, Lat. genu, Gr. γονν, Sansk. jánu. A.S. mic-el (cf. Scotch mickle), Goth. mih-ils, O. H. Germ. mih-il, Lat. mag-nus, Gr. μεγ-άλος, Sansk. mah-at. Engl. child, O. S. kind, Gr. γόνος (offspring). Engl. queen, Goth. ginổ or gens, A. S. cven, O. N. kona, O. H. Germ. chena, Gr. γυνή, Sansk. janî (originally meaning 'mother'). Engl. king, Germ. könig, A.S. cyning, O. H. Germ. chuninc, Sansk. janaka (originally meaning 'father'). Gr. èγώ, Lat. eg-o, Goth. ik, A.S. ic, O. N. ek, O. H. Germ. ih, Germ. ich.

(5) D. Sanskrit, Greek, Latin d.
 T. Gothic t.
 TH. Old High German z.

Examples:—Engl. foot, Germ. fuß, Lat. ped-is (pes), Gr. ποδ-όs (πούs), Goth. föt-us, O. H. Germ. vuoz, Sansk. pād-as. Engl. wat-er, Goth. vat-ō, Germ. waß-er, O. H. Germ. waz-ar, Lat. und-a, Gr. νδ-ωρ, Sansk. ud-a. Engl. heart, Goth. hairt-ō, Germ. herz, O. H. Germ. herz-a, Lat. cord-is (cor), Gr. καρδ-ία, Sansk. hridaya. Engl. tear, A. S. teár, Goth. tagr, Germ. zähre, O. H. Germ. zahar, Lat. lacruma (=dacruma), Gr. δάκρυ, Sansk. asru (=dasru). Engl. two, Goth. tvai, Germ. zwei, O. H. Germ. zuei,

Lat. duo, Gr. δύω. Engl. ten, Goth. taihun, Germ. zehn, O. H. Germ. zehan, Lat. decem, Gr. δέκα, Sansk. daśan.

(6) B. Sanskrit b or v; Greek and Latin b.
P. Gothic p (scarce).
PH. Old High German ph or f.

'There are few really Saxon words beginning with p, and there are no words in Gothic beginning with that letter, except foreign words'.' No suitable examples can therefore be given, except a few where the mentioned consonants occur at the end of the root, e. g. Gk. κάνναβ-ις, O. N. hanp-r, O. H. Germ. hanaf; Engl. help, Goth. hilpa, Germ. helfe, O. H. Germ. hilfu.

The third class embraces words which in Sanskrit, Greek and Latin have the tenuis k, t, or p, which in Gothic and the other Low German dialects is replaced by the aspirates h (for ch, kh), th and ph (f) respectively, while Old High German should make use of the media g, d, b. But in the last-mentioned dialect the law breaks down. Instead of the mediæ b and g, the aspirates f and h are preferred, and only d, the media of the dentals, has been preserved to represent the Gothic th and Sanskrit t.

III. (7) K. Sanskrit and Greek k; Latin c, qu.
KH. Gothic h, g (f); Sanskrit h.
G. Old High German h (g, k).

Examples: — Engl. head, A. S. heafod, Goth. haubith, Germ. haupt, O. H. Germ. houpit, Lat. caput, Gr. κεφαλή, Sansk. kapála. Engl. heart, Goth. hairtó, Germ. herz, O. H. Germ. herza, Lat. cor, Gr. καρδία, Sansk. hridaya (hrid, irregular instead of krid). Engl. who, what, A. S. hwa, hwät, Goth. hvas, hvó, hva, Germ. wer, waß, O. H. Germ. wër. Transliterating this into Sanskrit, we get kas. ká, kad; Lat. quis, quæ, quid; Gr. κόs and πόs. Engl, fee, Germ. vieh, A. S. feó, Goth. faihu, Lat. pec-us. A. S. eág-e (eye), Germ. aug-e, O. H. Germ. oug-a, Lat. oc-ulus, Gr. δκ-ός =  $\delta \pi$ -ός, gen. from  $\delta \psi$ .

(8) T. Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin t.
TH. Gothic th and d.
D. Old High German d.

Examples:—Engl. thou, Goth. thu, Germ. and O. H. Germ. du, Lat. tu, Gr. τύ, Sansk. twam (nom.). Engl. the (cf. this, that), Goth. thana, Germ. den, O. H. Germ. den, Lat. is-tum, Gr. τόν, Sansk. tam (acc.). Engl. three, Goth. threis, Germ. drei, O. H. Germ. dri, Lat. tres, Gr. τρεῖs, Sansk. trayas (n. pl.). Engl.

<sup>1</sup> Max Müller, Lectures, ii. p. 210.

oth-er, A.S. οδ-er, Goth. anth-ar, Germ. and-er, O.H. Germ. and-ar, Lat. alt-er, Gr. ἔτ-ερος, Sansk. ant-ara. Engl. tooth, A.S. tôth, Goth. tunth, O.H. Germ. zand, Lat. dens, dent-is, Gr. οδούς, οδόντ-ος, Sansk. dant-as.

(9) P. Sanskrit, Greek, Latin p.
 PH. Gothie f and b.
 B. Old High German f and v.

Examples:—Engl. five, Goth. fimf, Germ. fünf, Gr. πέμπε, Sansk. panchan. Engl. full, Goth. fulls, Germ. roll, Lat. plenus, Gr. πλέος, Sansk. pūrna. Engl. father, Goth. fadar, Germ. vater, O. H. Germ. vatar, Lat. pater, Gr. πατήρ, Sansk. pitri. Engl. over, Goth. ufar, Germ. über, O. H. Germ. ubar, Lat. super, Gr. ὑπέρ, Sansk. upari. The last example is one of the very few within the range of the mute labials in which the law of displacement is strictly carried out in the different dialects.

## General Table of Grimm's Law 1.

	I.				I	I.	ш.		
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	16.	7.	8.	9.
I. Sanskrit Greek Latin	gh(h) $X$ $h, f(g, v)$	f(d,b)	bh (h)  p  f (b)	9 9	d 8 d	ь в ь	k k c, qu	t	p n p
II. Gothic	g k	t	p	ch	t	ph(f)	h, g(f) h, g, k	th, d	f

## Exceptions to Grimm's Law.

'As in other sciences, so in the science of language, a law is not violated—on the contrary, it is confirmed—by exceptions of which a rational explanation can be given?' These exceptions are owing to disturbing influences to which chiefly consonants in the middle and at the end of words are liable and of which we examine a few cases.

A consonant often preserves its position in the different dialects under the shelter of a preceding consonant. Thus, for instance, mutes protect a succeeding t, and, whenever the tenuis is preceded at the beginning of words by an s, h, or f, these letters protect the k, t, p, and guard it against the execution of the law. Thus the Sansk. ashtau, Gr. ὅκτω, Lat. octo, is in Goth. ahtau, O. H. Germ. ahtő, where h (=Germ. ch) preserves the tenuis t. A similar case we have in the Sansk. naktam (adverbial

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare Max Müller, Lectures, ii. p. 222.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid. p. 213.

accusative); Gr. νύξ, νυκτός, Lat. nox, noctis, is the Goth. nakts, O. H. Germ. nakt, A. S. nikt (night). Though Grimm's law is most strictly enforced at the beginning of words, it becomes, even there, powerless under the mentioned conditions. Thus the Sanskrit stri, plural staras (in the Veda), Latin stella (=sterula), is in Gothic stairno (star), the tenuis owing its preservation to

the preceding s.

Since in Gothic and several other Teutonic dialects the guttural aspirate is wanting, it is replaced by the hard breath k, sometimes the media g, which consonants are both adopted in Old High German; or g is displaced by k; or the Gothic g returns to k again. The Gothic aspirate f which takes the place of the Sanskrit p, should, in Old High German, be represented by the media b; but the Old High German dialect makes in this case again rather free with the law, replacing the media by the labial soft breath r, and discarding this again in favour of the hard breath f, the Gothic representative. Instead of the dental aspirate th (p) the Old High German has its own characteristic consonant z, which, according to its position, may be hard (z) or soft (g).

#### TEUTONIC CONSONANTS.

## Liquids:—l, m, n, r

The Gothic dialect keeps strictly distinct the simple initial liquids l, n, r, and their aspirated compounds hl, hn, hr; e.g. luftus, air (Germ. luft), and hliftus, fur, a thief; reisan, to rise, and hrisjan, to shake; laif, mansi, and hlaif, bread, loaf. This distinction is kept alive in the other Low German dialects, Anglo-Saxon, Old Saxon and Old Frisian, and in Old Norse; while the Old High German, since the beginning of the ninth century renders the initial compounds hl, hn, hr, by the single l, n, r. The Old Norse l and r is certainly found for the wl and wr of the other dialects, but never for hl and hr.

Gemination, or the doubling, of liquids occurs in Gothic after a short vowel, but it is not there yet developed to a necessary law, whence the single liquid is often retained in the place of the gemination. The liquid r especially prefers to lead a single existence. Old High German at a very early stage produces gemination by assimilating more ancient combinations, such as lj, nj, rj, rz, rn, &c., to the liquid, and thus forming the combinations ll, nn, rr, &c.; e.g. zellan from zaljan, zeljan; werran

from warjan; brunna from brunja; stimma, voice (Germ. stimme), from an older form stimna, Goth. stibna; nennan, to name (Germ. nennen), from nemnjan; merran, to impede (Goth. marzjan); sterro, star (Germ. stern), Goth. staírnó. If a geminated liquid should happen to find its place at the end of a word, it is reduced to a simple consonant; e.g. fal, falles; man, mannes.

The Low German dialects, Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian, agree with Old High German in rejecting gemination at the end of a word, while Old Saxon even in this position sometimes retains the doubled liquid. Hence Anglo-Saxon writes like Old

High German, bil, billes; man, mannes; grim, grimmes.

Peculiar to several Low German dialects is the gemination of the liquid n arising from the contraction of two n's, which in consequence of the elision of one or several vowels came into closer contact. Thus Anglo-Saxon has anne for anene, one; minne for minene, mine; Old Frisian enne for enene, minne for minene, thinne, &c.

Gemination in the middle of a word is sometimes destroyed by an inflexional syllable being added to the word, e.g. grimra instead of grimmera; or, under the influence of metathesis (vid.

infra), as horses for hrosses (equi).

Old Norse has in its geminations certain peculiarities of its own which deserve separate enumeration. The gemination ll has often its origin in assimilation: (1)  $l\delta -gull$  from  $gul\delta$ , gold; villr from vil\deltar, wild; ballr from baldr, bold; (2)  $\delta l$  (of later occurrence), e. g. milli, inter, for midli; frilla, pellex, for fridla, bralla, quickly, for bradla; (3) l of the root with r of the termination, when in monosyllables preceded by a long vowel or diphthong, in bisyllables after a short vowel as well; e.g. heill, heal (Germ. heil), for heilr; dæll, sweet, for dælr (but völr, staff, stick); gamall=gamalr, old; litill=litilr, small, little. But llr remains unchanged, as ballr, villr. As lr, so at a later phase of the language rl, also may be converted into ll, as iall for iarl, earl; kelling for kerling (vetula).

It is a characteristic feature of Old Norse, which distinguishes it from the High as well as the Low German dialects, that *ll*, like every other gemination, is preserved intact at the end of words too, where, besides Old Norse, Old Saxon only allows

exceptionally of the gemination.

#### ${f r}$

This liquid in Gothic is safe from the interchange with the sibilant s, while all the other Teutonic dialects have, like the

Greek and Latin, more or less yielded to the inclination of the s towards the liquid r. This change of s into r is often

called 'Rhotacism.'

Old High German allows both the sharp and soft Gothic sibilants (s and z) to be supplanted by r:(1) in the inflexion and comparison of the adjectives, e.g. plinter (blind), plintero, Goth. blinds, blindôza; (2) in roots, e.g. rôr, Goth. ráus, dew (comp. Lat. ros, roris); ora, Goth. auso, ear. Especially the Gothic z has almost in every instance made room to the liquid r, e.g. rarta, tongue, language (Goth, razda); merran, to impede (Goth. marzjan); hort, treasure (comp. Engl. hoard), Goth. huzd. The Gothic z is however preserved in fersna, heel (Germ. ferse), Goth. fairzna; asca, ashes (Germ. asche), Goth. azgó. (3) Some strong verbs which in the 1st pers. sing. pret. show a final s, convert this s into r where another inflexional syllable is added, e.g. kiosan, eligere; kôs, elegi; kuri, elegisti; kurumés, elegimus; koranér, electus; thus also, nas, nari, narumes, neraner, of nesan, servari, and los, luri, lurumes, loraner of liosan, perdere. The inflexional s of the strong declension of the substantive remains intact. So also does the s at the beginning of a word, while in the middle or at the end it may or may not pass into the domain of the liquids—a fact for which no rule can be laid down.

Old Saxon has, like Old High German, both the organic r and the inorganic r, replacing the sibilant s. Elision of r has taken place in linon for linon, to learn;—apocope in he, is; hue, quis; these, hic; unca, voitepos; inca,  $\sigma \phi \omega t \tau \epsilon \rho \sigma s$ ; usa, noster; iwa, vester. Prefix a = ar. We have metathesis of the r in

frothan for forhtan, to fear.

Anglo-Saxon follows the general rule in replacing s by r, but still it has often the sibilant preserved where Old High German yields to the r; e.g. baso, Goth. basi, O. H. Germ. peri, berry; irsgan, irasci, Goth. airzjan, O. H. Germ. irran; in other words, again, Old High German preserves the s where Anglo-Saxon prefers r; e.g. O. H. Germ. haso, A. S. hara (Germ. hase, Engl. hare). Apocope of the r sometimes takes place at the end of words, as we, we; ge, ye; me, mihi; þe, tibi: a, prefix for ar: mā, more, for mār. The metathesis of the organic r is more fully developed than in Old Saxon, this letter being especially fond of taking up its position, whenever possible, immediately before s, or the sibilant combinations st, sc, e.g. hors, horse, instead of hros (comp. Germ. ross); berstan, to burst, O. S. brëstan; forst for frost, perscan for prescan, to thrash. Other instances of metathesis are—forma, primus, Goth. fruma; bird and brid (bird), gärs and gräs (grass); birnan, to burn, O. H. Germ. prinnan (Germ.

brennen); irnan, O. H. Germ. rinnan, to run; cerse, O. H. Germ.

chressa, cresses.

Old Frisian yields more than any of the preceding dialects to the tendency of replacing s by r, so that this liquid takes the place of the sibilant even in the plural of the substantive inflexion, e. g. fiskar, degar, instead of Goth. fiskôs, fishes, dagôs, days. This inflexional r is, however, frequently dropped. Metathesis takes place under the same conditions as in Anglo-Saxon, hence the forms bersta, to burst; fersk, fresh; hars, horse; gers, grass; barna, to burn; forma, primus; warld=wrald from werald. The case is inverted in forms such as bren for bern, child.

## m, n

Old High German. Since the ninth century the liquid m is often weakened into n, chiefly in inflexional forms, a case in which the inflexional vowel also is frequently weakened according to the rules indicated above. Thus wërfamés becomes wërfan, vērfen; wurfumés, wurfon, wurfen; sagém, sagén; tagum, tagon; gēbón, gēbón; kreftim, kreften. The consonantal combination mf is regularly converted into nf, e.g. funf, Goth. fimf, five; sanfto for samfto, meek; kunft for kumft, arrival.

Old Saxon. The termination m of the dat. plur. is replaced by n, e. g. wordun for wordum, verbis; rikium for rikium, potentibus; the adjectives of the strong declension also change the

termination umu occasionally into on.

It is a characteristic feature of Old Saxon, and the Low German dialects generally, that before certain consonants they drop the liquid n. This consonant is omitted (1) before s; e.g. is, nobis (Germ. uns); cust, virtus (Germ. kunst); but retained in anst, favour: (2) before d; e.g. idar, alius, = andar (Germ. ander); cad, known; fidan and findan, to find; mid, mouth (Germ. mund, &c.): (3) before f; e.g. fif, five (Goth. fimf, Germ. fünf); safto, O. H. Germ. sanfto, = samfto: (4) before d in the termina-

tions of the pres. indic. plur. of all verbs; e. g. salbod = salbond, hverfad = hverfand, hebbiad = hebbiand.

Anglo-Saxon. The liquid m, which, at the end of words,

other dialects weaken into n, is retained in Anglo-Saxon.

n occurring in the middle of a word is dropped, (1) before s-ést, grace, = Goth. anst, O. S. anst; kásl, sacrifice, Goth. ksad: canst, novisti, retains the u: (2) before &—cu&, known (cf. Germ. kunde); mú&, mouth (cf. Germ. mund); tó&, tooth (cf. Germ. zahn, O. H. Germ. tand); a& = and, termination of the presplur. of the verb: (3) before f—fif, five (Germ. fünf, Goth. fimf); softe, sefte, meek, soft (cf. Germ. sanft, O. H. Germ. senfti).

Old Frisian. The m, when occurring in terminations, has

throughout been changed into n.

n is dropped under the same conditions as in Anglo-Saxon. Compare the following examples with those of Anglo-Saxon given above:—ús, nobis; ev-ést, invidia; fíf, five; múth, mouth; tôth, tooth; other, alius. n suffers apocope at the end of the infinitive of the verb: wertha, to become (Germ. werden). In the same manner the terminations of the subjunctive of the verb, and of the weak inflexions of the noun, have dropped their final w.

Old Norse. The terminational m is never weakened into s;

mm in fimm is the mf of the Goth. fimf, five.

The liquid n is affected in various ways. It is dropped in roots (1) before s: oss, nobis; ást, favour; (2) before a & which is followed by r:  $ku\delta r$ , known;  $mu\delta r$ , mouth;  $ma\delta r$ , man; ödrum from annar, other (By the side of kudr and mudr we meet the forms kunnr and munnr); (3) before k which is preceded by a long vowel, e.g. mikr, monk; kanikr, canonicus; but if s short vowel precedes the nk, the gemination kk may take place, e.g. Frakkland, Frankland, terra Francorum; akkeri, anchor; drekka, to drink; okkar, ykkar, Goth. uggara, iggara, νῷν, σφῷν. (4) The terminational ng of strong verbs is, in the sing. pret. and imperative, converted into kk, e.g. springa, to spring, imp. sprikk, pret. sprakk, sprung (Germ. sprang); hánga, to hang, imp. hakk, pret. hekk. In the plur. pret., if followed by a terminational syllable, ng preserves its position; hence sprüngum, hengum, plur. of sprakk, hekk. (5) tt replaces nd in exactly the same manner; hence, binda, to bind, imp. bitt, pret. batt; hrinda, trudere, pret. hratt; but the plurals are again bundum, hrundum.

The final n of the root has been dropped in the particles i, a. b, Goth. -in, -ana, -un, a circumstance which caused the vowel to

become long.

The n of the terminations is dropped (1) in the infinitive of

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distributed of a in commend of in and if the a in more directed and a general general flower, much prome, to find: 78c, and a mine, mine Goth, numbers: 2 in a-c, the latter belonging to the inflexion, e.g. some, mine, mean; seems, mine = eight-res, properherum.

## SPIRATE:-V, W, S, E, j, h

## V, W

Sothic. Much-favoured combinations at the beginning of are rr and rl, which in the other dialects are often rehad by the simple r and l. Examples: -raises, circumspicere; mit, apex litera; crobjen, to accuse; ricite, vultus. In the mile of a word r preserves its position after consonants, e.g. pra, sparrow; silvan, rapere; bidagra, beggar; utar-ekadrjan, Wer-shadow; before a long, and between two short, vowels, tg. fardi, few; hari, hay; piri, ancilla; slurun, silere: but whenever it takes its place at the end of a word, after a short rowel, or before a consonant, it is vocalized vid. sub lit. u). The form we charjib izris (exriptore) is an exception; and so are foreign words and proper names in which the Gothic spelling ar renders the Byzantine pronunciation of the Greek diphthong ai, as kartago, Parlus. At the end of words r never occurs except when preceded either by a diphthong or a consonant, e.g. dir, bráiv, ralv, sakr.

Old High German. The Gothic v in the initial combinations vr, vl, were, in the oldest forms of Old High German, expressed by  $\lambda r$ ,  $\lambda l$ , but in later documents represented by the simple r and l; in the same manner as the more ancient Old High German  $\lambda w$  is later on replaced by the simple w, e.g.

wër for kwër, who; wëdar for kwëdar, whether.

The Old High German w, which in pronunciation coincides with the English w, is rendered in manuscripts by uu, uv, vu, but after a consonant, or before the vowel u, simply by u.

When it occurs at the end of a word in the combinations aw (ow), iw, it is vocalized into au (ou), iu, but it re-assumes its position when an inflexional syllable is added, hence tau (tou), genitive

tures (tores); chain, genitive chaines. In these forms, hower a peculiar tendency becomes manifest to retain the diphtho even before the restored w, and thus to destroy the short vo altogether, hence tau (tou), genitive tauwes (touwes); chniu, ge tive chainnes. From the combination are we get ew (en) Umlaut, and or (ou) by Schwächung, in the same manner as and ou from au; and these again yield the genitive forms eux ource, instead of the simple ence, owee; and in ouwes again t on may be replaced by o which is a greater favourite to w, her onces. Now all these different combinations may be used ind criminately, just as the different manuscripts prefer the one the other. Thus then we find frawjan, frewjan, frowjan, fran jan, freurjan, fromjon, frouwjan, as different modes of spellin one and the same word—the German freuen, delectari. en is found instead of in, it stands on the same principle Trübung as does e for i; and as in becomes inn, so also en, lengthened into euw, e.g. iwih, iuwih; ewih, euwih, vobis. E ceptional forms: - puren (puen), katruven (katruen), for the Goth bánan, to dwell; gatránan, to trust; where we should expect find pawun, ketrawan, in Old High German. (The former for occurs once, the latter not at all.) In three verbs the original is supposed by some grammarians to have been converted into grirume's for grirume's, scrirume's for scrivoume's, and pirume's for pinume's, from the verbs grian, gannire; scrian, clamare. scr scume's has actually maintained its position against scrirume More plausible is the view of others, according to which the has replaced a more ancient s, as scrirumes for scrisumes, & See the conjugation of the strong verb.

In the middle of a word the w which terminates a root usually dropped, when between it and the vowel of the row another consonant intervenes, e.g. Goth. aggrus, O. H. Gern engi; Goth. saihran, O. H. Germ. sähan; Goth. gatvó, O. I. Germ. gazza: in all other cases it retains its position, thoug at the end of the word it may have been dropped or vocalized hence furawa, colour; melewes, farinæ; garawér, paratus; grawe grey (Germ. grau). At the end of a word w cannot sustaitself, and is therefore vocalized in u or o, as garo, spear; men flour, meal; palo, cædes: where no consonant, but merely vowel, precedes it, this vocalized w may be dropped altogethe as grá for grao, grey (Germ. grau).

Old Saxon. In this dialect the spirant w was probably ide tical with that of Old High German, and is rendered by un, rarely by v. Examples:—dualon, præstigia; suart, swart, blach huërban, to go; thuahan, to wash; tueho, doubt. This w has be

vocalized and has superseded the radical vowel in cuman for cuiman, to come; sulic, such (Goth, svaleiks). The combinations wl and wr (written uul and uur), which were extinct in Old High

German, retained their position in Old Saxon.

aw and iw show, like the same combinations in Old High German, a tendency to lengthen themselves into auw, iuw, e.g. hawan and hauwan (spelt hauvan and hauvuan), glawes and glauwes, iwar and iuwar, fiwar and fiuwar, used alternately. Like Old High German the Old Saxon dialect drops the w when, at the end of a root, it is preceded by another consonant, e.g. schan, to see (Goth. saíhvan); engi, narrow (Germ. enge); also between two vowels, scola, soul (Goth. saívala). At the end of a word it is always vocalized in u or o, e.g. glau, prudent; sco, sea; co, law; but when an inflexional syllable is added it re-appears

again, and hence the genitives glawes, sewes, ewes.

Anglo-Saxon.  $w^1$  is in Anglo-Saxon as in Gothic the pure spirant which in the manuscripts is rendered by uu, u, or by the Runic sign w e n (p). Where w is preceded by another consonant and followed by the vowel i, this vowel is dropped and the w vocalized in u, e. g. cuman from cwiman, to come; suster from swister, sister; hulic from hwilic, which; uht from wiht, thing. Here again we have something similar to the reappearance of the Old High German w, which, though vocalized into u, retains its position. So also the Anglo-Saxon w, though vocalized in u, may yet appear in its original position, e. g. swuster for suster, from swister; wuht for uht, from wiht; swura for sura, from swira, neck. In a few cases the vocalized w = u is weakened into v, hence the preterite com, cómon, instead of cum, cúmon, from cwam, veni, cwamon, venimus.

The initial w is regularly dropped when the negative particle ne enters into a compound with a verb, e.g. näs=ne wäs, non fuit; næron=ne wæron, non fuerunt; nitan=ne witan, nescire;

nillan = ne willan, nolle.

The Gothic combinations av and iv are in a few cases preserved in their integrity, as slaw, slow, lazy; triwen, wooden, of a tree; but as a rule Anglo-Saxon follows, like Old High German and Old Saxon, the law of vocalization, wherever those combinations occur as final consonants, which consequently are converted into the diphthongs eá, eó. But here again, as in Old High German, the w, though vocalized, resumes its position before the diphthong to which it gave birth, and in this respect Anglo-Saxon goes further still than Old High German, preserving the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> German grammarians commonly write v.

w even as final consonant. Examples:—The Gothic fani, few, we should expect to see rendered in A. S. by eá, hence feá; w however retains its place, and hence we get the declensional form feáwa; the same is the case with heáwan, to hew; sceáwan, to contemplate (Germ. schauen); but even without a final vowel the forms eáw, eów preserve their position (contrary to the usages of O. H. Germ.), e. g. cneów, knee, O. H. Germ. chniu; eów, vobis, O. H. Germ. iu; gleáw, prudent, O. H. Germ. glan; deáw, dew, O. H. Germ. tou. Very rarely this final w has been dropped. Where a final w is preceded by a consonant, it is vocalized into u (o), but it reappears when an inflexional syllable is added, e. g. bealu, evil, gen. bealwes; melo, meal, flour, gen. melwes; or, w and its vocalization u may occur together, se bealwes—bealwes; the u weakened into e, meleves = meluves = melves.

Old Frisian. The spirant w must be kept distinct from the labial aspirate v, with which it is occasionally mixed up. kw, and similar combinations, are, as a rule, strictly preserved from any intermixture with the succeeding vowel; the few cases in which the Anglo-Saxon vocalization is admitted are sucles sister, kuma, to come; kom, came, for svisler, kvima, kvam. is often rendered by a simple w, e. g. willen for wullen, wanten for wunnen, wrdon for wurdon; iuw and auw instead of iw, aw, av to be explained in the same manner as the identical forms Old High German. Examples: -finwer = fiwer, four; triuwe trive, faith (Germ. treue); hauwan = hawan, verberatum (Germ ge-hauen. Instead of a diphthong the w has produced a long vowel in dawe, dew, rori; frowa. lady (Germ. frau); strewa, to At the end of a word the w is sometimes preserved sometimes dropped, e.g. daw, dew; blaw, livid; ga, country (Germ gau); a, law. When it is final, w is not vocalized, except perhaps in kniu (acc. of kni, knee) and balu-mund, malustutor. Sometimes w is dropped in the middle of a word, as sela, soul; it is vocalized in naut=nawet, naught, nothing, O.S. niowiht.

 the vowel a, makes o, e.g. on = ván, hope (cf. Germ. wan); ogum = vágum, interfecimus, from rega. Also in the combinations kr, m, tv, followed by a vowel which is affected by Umlaut or Schwächung, v is vocalized; e.g. koma, kom, for krema, kram; kms for kvana and kven, woman; sofa for srefa, to sleep; tuttugu for trintugu, twenty. At the end of a word, and before the termination r of the nominative, r is dropped, but in the inflexional or derivative forms it may re-appear; e.g. sa-r, lake Germ. see, Goth. sáiv-s), gen. sav-ar; há-r, high, weak form hár-i; kikk-r, black, acc. dökkv-an; miöl, flour, meal, dat. miòlr-i. Words with a long vowel in the root have dropped the r altogether, as klô, claw, gen. klô-ar; frú, lady (Germ. frau, O. H. Germ. frawe); ský, sky; blár, blew, &c. At the end of words v in never vocalized.

### 8, Z

These letters represent in Gothic, as in modern English, two distinct stages of the sibilant sound, s the hard, z the soft: the latter, therefore, has nothing in common with the Old and Modern German z. Hence they may exchange places, the softer z especially taking the place of the hard s, when the latter recedes from the end to the middle of a word, e.g. bis, ejus, fem. pizos; slépan, pret. saizlép; ans, trabs, dat. anza: so also fairzna, heel (Germ. ferse), azgo, ashes; huzd, hoard, treasure. At the beginning of a word z never occurs, but at the end if the following word begins with a vowel. This z, or soft s, is in the other dialects represented by r. In conjugational and derivative forms a very often is the result of the dissimilation of dentals; thus naust for naut-t; varst for vary-t; mosta for mol-da1; blostreis, worshipper, from blôtan; beist, yeast, from beitan. ansis, favour (Germ. gunst), alabrunsis, holocaustum, the s is inserted between n and t for euphonic reasons, a case which occurs far more frequently in the other dialects.

Old High German. The Old High German s corresponds to the Gothic, but in many cases it has been encroached upon by the letter r (rhotacism), of which we have already treated. The combination sk which occurs frequently is, towards the end of the Old High German period, worn down to sch, chiefly before the vowels e and i. Gemination is avoided at the end of words, e.g. ros—rosses.

Old Saxon. Rhotacism of s into r takes place as in Old High

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See the conjugation of the strong verb.

German. s is inserted for euphonic purposes in anst, favour; cunst, virtus (Germ. kunst), and in the preterite of verbs, as con-s-ta, on-s-ta, &c. z seems in Old Saxon to occupy the same relation to s as in Gothic, and may often interchange with s, e. g. blidzean, delectare (A. S. bledsjan, to bless); bezt = best from betist, lazto and lezto = lasto, letisto.

Old Frisian. In this dialect the s sound is treated as in Old High German and Old Saxon, especially with regard to rhotacism; therefore the s is preserved in the pres. and pret. sing. of strong verbs, while the pret. plur. and the part. adopt r, e. g. kiase, kás, keron, keren; wesa, was, weron; urliase, urlás, urleron, urleren. Metathesis of sc and sp does not take place. The softening of sk into sch, which is characteristic of the later Old High German, occurs in Old Frisian as a dialectic variation only, where we find schet for sket, treasure (Germ. schatz); scheldech, guilty (Germ. schuldig); schel for skel, shall; schilling, shilling; and in two cases before a and u—schangt (Germ. schenkt

ein) and schule, shelter, hut.

Old Norse. This dialect has more thoroughly than any other developed the system of rhotacism; yet the spirant s is always preserved at the beginning, and very often in the middle and at the end of words. Geminated s (ss) occurs often in the middle and at the end of words: it may result from rs. The Old Norse z has nothing in common with the same letter in Old High German, but it is merely used to supplant certain other consonants and consonantal combinations. Thus, (1) for the s of the gen. sing., masc., and neut., e. g. hestz = hests, ordz = ords; also for the s which occurs in the formation of the superlative, e. g. sterkaztr = sterkastr, frodaztr = frodastr; and on other occasions, as menzkir = menskir, humani: (2) for ds and ts, e.g. lanz =

lands, helzt = heldst, maxime; veizla = veitzla, convivium: (3) for the inflexional sk, the later st, of the middle voice, e.g.  $re\delta uz =$ redusk, rádaz=rádask, beraz=berask: (4) for the rs of a later date, e.g. veztr=verstr, stoeztr=stoerstr.

Gothic. This letter occurs in Gothic only as an initial, never at the end of a syllable, e.g. jah, and; sun-jus, filii, sons. Concerning the vocalization of this letter when it is terminational, or when it occurs before consonants, vide supra, sub lit. i.

Old High German. This dialect renders j by i. however it occurs at the beginning of a word it is rendered by g before e and i, by j before another vowel such as a or d, e. g. gehan, affirmare; gihit, affirmat; jah, affirmavi; jahumes, affirmavimus. j however occurs before ë and i also in Notker. In the middle of a word j is rarely supplanted by g even before  $\ddot{e}$  and i, yet we read eigir, eggs; friger, ingenuus. In the middle of words j often is assimilated to the succeeding consonant, and forms gemination, e. g. horran for horgan, mitter for mitjer. It 18 vocalized as in Gothic when it stands between two consonants or at the end of a word, e. g. nerjan, salvare, nerita; heri, army, gen. herjes. Initial j is occasionally dropped, as ëner for jënër or gener, ille; amer for jamer, planetus (Germ. jammer).

Old Saxon. j and i designate the same sound. At the end of words j is always supplanted by i, in the same manner as w by w. This dialect, like Old High German, renders j before e, and i by g, whether at the beginning or in the middle of a word, e.g. ger for jar, year; gëhan, affirmare, fateri; gi, ye; nigi, new, Goth. ninjis; and before other vowels it is often supplanted by I, e.g. giungaro = jungaro, disciple (Germ. junger); giudeo = judeo, Jew. This gi for j has nothing to do with the prefix gi. The reverse rarely occurs, that is, j instead of g before a thin vowel (e or i), a case which is more common in Old Frisian. Before an inflexional a it has a tendency to yield its place to the vowel e, as wendean for wendjan, blidean for blidjan, and before a consonant

it is vocalized, e. g. saida from sajan, to sow.

Anglo-Saxon. In the more ancient manuscripts j is rendered by g or i, so that before e and i we find g, before other vowels ge. (Compare Old Saxon). Examples :- ge, ye; git, you two; gear, Year; geoc, yoke; geong, young. Rarely i=j: id, jd, yes; ioc, joc, Yoke. The latter consonant is however preferred in the middle of a word: eardjan, to dwell, for which we find eardigean too. After the liquid r the consonant g is more commonly used, as nergan =

nerjan, wergan = werjan. If j at the end of a word is not dropped, it is also replaced by g: sig, sit, may be (=si, Germ. sei); hig. they (=hi); frig=fri and  $fre\delta$ , free. This g which is used for j may yield to the spirant w, as buwan for buian or bugian, to dwell.

Old Frisian. While the other dialects which we have just examined often supplant j by g, Old Frisian on the contrary has, besides the organic j, used this consonant in the place of g. The sibilant j is organic in jër, year; jung, young; federjs, patruus; makja, to make; sparja, to spare; ërja, to honour (Germ. êren). Still, this consonant is rather scarce, because it is commonly vocalized where it forms part of the root, as nia, new (Goth. niujis); fri, free (Goth. freis, frijis). g for j is rarely used. j once vocalized into i is lost altogether from the word; hence hiri, army (Germ. heer), has in the dative, not hirji, but hiri, contrary to the rule followed by the other dialects.

Old Norse. At the beginning of words j is dropped throughout, except in jû, ita, and jôl, feast; hence Old Norse writes ûr, ok, ûngr, instead of jûr, jok, jûngr. In the middle of a derivative word j before i is dropped, hence midi for midji, siti for sitji. As in Anglo-Saxon, so also in Old Norse, j may produce the gemination gg. Scandinavian grammarians spell the Brechung ia, iö, and the diphthongs io, iu, by ja, jö, jo, ju. Grimm, how-

ever, prefers the former mode of spelling.

#### h

Gothic. At the beginning of a word it has a soft, in the middle or at the end, a hard sound. It is often produced out of g or k where these consonants are followed by t (vide infra, Dentals). Gothic, as well as other Teutonic dialects, is fond of supplying the h with the additional spirant v, which however must be regarded as merely euphonic and without any etymological value. The cognate languages, with the exception of Latin, render, in accordance with Grimm's law, the Gothic h by k, as Goth. hvas, O. H. Germ. huër, Sansk. kas; Goth. hvéleiks, Gr. κηλίκως: while Latin shares the Gothic tendency and says quis and qualis. The double spirant is avoided at later times, in such a manner that the usurper v preserves its place and the original h is dropped. Some editors use w for the combination hv.

When the derivative suffix ta follows upon a guttural of the root, the guttural g or k is changed into h, e.g. mah-ta, pret. of mag-an (posse).

This dialect has two distinct sounds · Old High German. which are both represented by the letter h; in one case it is the minnt which corresponds to the Gothic h, in the other it is the apirated guttural, answering to the Gothic k, and in pronunciation approaching the German ch. At the beginning of a word the Old High German & is always identical with the Gothic spirant of the same character, e.g. hano, cock, Goth. hana; leds, halt, claudus, Goth. halts; but in the middle and at the and of a word it may be either the spirant or the aspirate. The latter, when occurring in the middle of the word, is rendered by i, ii, or ch; at the end of the word almost always by h. In order therefore to determine whether in a given case we have to deal with the spirant or the aspirate, we must collate the Old high German with the Gothic form, the latter always rendering the Old High German spirant by A, the Old High German spirate by k. Thus we have in the words mihil, zeihan, brahun, the aspirate, because they are rendered in Gothic by mikils, tükne, brékun; in slahan, fihu, ziohan, the spirant, Goth. slahan, fuln, tiuhan; at the end of words, ih, mih, juh, the aspirate sgain, because we find them in Gothic rendered by ik, mik, juk, while sah, zêh, flôh, display the spirant just as the Goth. sahv, tik, þláuk.

When occurring in the middle of a word the spirant h is often dropped, and then causes the preceding vowel to be lengthened, e.g. a = aha, water; bil = bihil, bipennis. h has been dropped before s in mist, fimus, Goth. mathstus;  $z\ddot{c}saw\dot{c}r$ , dexter, Goth.

laihera.

Under the influence of an inflexional t the guttural g or k is changed into h, e.g. mah-ta, pret. of magan, mugan, posse.

In the middle of words spirants can interchange, e.g. sajan, sahan, sawan, to sow; föher, föwer, few; craju, grawu, cana.

Old Saxon. The Old Saxon h corresponds exactly to the Gothic. The combinations hl, hr, hn, &c., are preserved in some documents, in others the h is dropped. As in Old High German, an inorganic h is produced out of g and k under the influence of an inflexional t, e.g.  $s\delta h-ta$ , pret. of  $s\delta k-jan$ , to seek; mah-ta, pret. of mugan, posse. h is no favourite consonant in the middle of a word, and is, therefore, either dropped or hardened into a guttural; hence  $s\ddot{c}an = s\ddot{c}han$ , to see;  $g\ddot{c}an = g\ddot{c}han$ , to affirm; gewigan instead of gewihan, to bless (Germ. weihen); and the plur. pret.  $l\ddot{o}gon$ ,  $sl\ddot{o}gon$ , of lahan, to blame, slahan, to slay. h is occasionally dropped after vowels, e.g.  $f\ddot{c}ra$ , anima, for  $f\ddot{c}rah$ ; fra, lætus (Germ. froh), for frah; or it is hardened into the media,  $gin \ddot{o}g$  for  $gin \dot{o}h$ , enough.

In sess, six, and fuss, fox, the double s takes the place of the

spirant combination hs.

In the middle of words spirants can, as in Old High German, interchange, e. g. sáhun, sáwun (even sáun and ságon, viderunt), kneohon and kneowon, dat. plur. of kneo, knee; sájan and sékan, to sow.

Anglo-Saxon. As in other dialects an inorganic h is produced out of g and c (h). Where the media g occurs at the end of a word it is replaced by h, as burh (borough), burge, beáh (ring), beáges; but it retains its position after short vowels, hence dāg, day; māg, may, podest; läg, law; māg, boy; weg, way. In the pret. of verbs, g yields its place to h, e. g. bealh, pret. of belgan; fleáh, pret. of fleóge; birhst, birhð, of beorgan; fleóhst, fleóhð of fleógan. Before the inflexional t of the preterite, the guttural c (t) must, as in other dialects, be changed into h, e. g. sécan, to seek; sóhte, sought; récan, curare, pret. rôhte. We have interchange of spirants in geseo = geseohe, I see, pret. geseah, plur. gesawon, part. gesewen and gesegen. hh = h.

Old Frisian. The initial h is identical with that of the other dialects. The combinations hl, hr, and hw, are also spelt lh, rh, Initial h is inorganic in haga, to have, Goth. aigan. In the middle of a word h is either dropped or hardened into g, e.g. sia, to see; tian, ten; slogon, plur. pret. of sld, to slay; hlige, conj. pres. of hlia, fateri, O. H. Germ. jëhan; hagost, superl. of hách, high (Germ. hoch). The hardened spirant h appears as ch at the end of a word (unless it is dropped, as in fia, pecus, Germ. vieh), e. g. hach, high; noch, yet, adhuc; in the middle of a word always before t, e.g. dochter, daughter; achta, eight; riucht, right; and thus every g or k is changed into ch before the inflexional t. as mach-te, pret. of meg-a, may, posse; sôch-te, pret. of sék-a, to seek. The media g, except in the combination ng and eg, changed into ei, always becomes ch when it occurs at the end of a word. or before the tenuis t, e.g. berch, mountain (Germ. berg), gen. berges; orloch, war, gen. orloges; fliucht, volat, of fliaga.

Old Norse. The more ancient forms hl, hn, hr, drop the k in later documents. In the middle and at the end of words k has been dropped everywhere: sĩa, to see, O. H. Germ. sẽhan; ior, horse (O. S. ehu); likamr, body (Germ. leichnam), for likhamr. ht is changed into tt, and by this change the preceding vowel is lengthened, e. g. rẽttr, right, Goth. raihts; dröttin, lord, O. H. Germ. truhtin. The combination kt, which in the other dialects is converted into ht, either remains intact, or is changed into tt, e. g. þöktr and þöttr, part. of þykja, videri; sötti and sökti, pret.

of sockja, to seek.

### MUTES.

## 1. Labials:-b, p, f (ph, v, b)

Gothic. The media b occurs frequently at the beginning of words, but in the middle and at the end it is often replaced by the labial aspirate f. Before the tenuis t the media b must invariably be changed into f: hence grôft from graban, dráift from dreiban. Where the b is terminational it can retain its place only after a liquid, as dumb, dumb; parb, poor, needy: after any other sound it must yield to f, e.g. gaf, pret. of giban, to give; grôf, pret. of graban, to dig (Germ. graben); hláif, accus. of hláibs, bread, loaf. Occasional deviations from this rule occur, so that we find hláifs for hláibs, and tvalib by the side of tvalif, twelve. The prepositions af, uf, afar (after), and ufar (over), prefer the f in every position; but where the interrogative particle u follows, the media regains its place, e.g. abu, whence, unde.

The tenuis p never occurs at the beginning of a native Gothic word, but it is frequent enough at the end and in the middle of words. In the latter case it is before a t subject to the same law as the media and must be changed into f, e.g. skapjan, to create (Germ. schaffen); scoft, creavisti; gaskafts, creature (Germ. geschöpf).

The aspirate f has received its explanation in the foregoing remarks.

Old High German. The Gothic media b should, in Old High German, according to Grimm's law, always be rendered by the tenuis p. This rule is, indeed, followed in the more ancient glossaries, where we read ipu, stap, prinkan, puah, for the Gothic iba, ne, nonne; stabs, element, rudiment; bringan, to bring; boka, letter (Germ. buchstabe). In other documents we find a less strict adherence to the rule, and though the tenuis is preserved at the beginning and at the end, it is often replaced by the media in the middle of words; hence, stap, puah, but ibu by the side of lepen. In other documents again the tenuis keeps its position only where it is terminational, being in every other place superseded by the media, and the final step in this deviation from the true Old High German system is made by replacing the tenuis by the media throughout; so that the Gothic b is everywhere rendered in Old High German by b as well. The tenuis occurs only in foreign words and after the sibilant s, which renders the position of a succeeding tenuis impregnable.

The Old High German aspirate may be expressed by ph, pf, and v: ph is found for the Latin p, as in phunt, Lat. pondupound, the later pfunt, or simply funt; or the Latin tenuremains unaltered, pun-t. In the middle of words and at the end ph is often used instead of f, as werphan, warph (Germ. werfen, warf). The initial aspirate is either rendered by f or v, the former indicating a surd, the latter a soft sound, and either being used according to the propensities of the different dialect in which the different authors have written. As a rule it make the laid down that an f which occurs at the end of a word make the changed into v when succeeded by another syllable, e. g. wolf wolves (the same in English); biscof (bishop), biscoves. The media b for v in the middle of a word is exceptional.

ps does not occur in Old High German, the Latin psalmustherefore becomes salm. (Compare the pronunciation of psalm in

English.) O. H. Germ. fs = A. S. sp: wefsa, wasp, wasp.

Since the dialectic variations in the use of the mutes are very complicated in Old High German, we subjoin a table, in which their application by different authors is indicated 1:—

		ISIDOR.	OTFRIED.	TATIAN.
Gothic, b, p, f; strict	Initial <sup>3</sup>	p. f. v	b, ph, f b, f, f	b, ph, f
O. H. Germ. p, ph, f	Terminational	p, ph, f	b, f, f	b. ph. v

Old Saxon. Old Saxon labials are rendered by the letters p, b, t, v, f, ph.

The tenuis p, which is rare at the beginning, occurs frequently in the middle and at the end of words, and is in every respect

identical with the Gothic p.

The media b keeps its position only at the beginning of words, while in the middle and at the end of a word it yields to the aspirate, except in the combinations mb and bb, as camb, comb;

lamb, lamb; webbi, web; hebbjan, to have.

There are two aspirates, the softer marked by  $\mathcal{B}$  (=bh, v), the surd by f; the former is used when a vowel or the media d succeeds, the latter before t, l, n, and commonly before r. Examples:—clioban, to cleave; aband, even, evening (Germ. abend); hobid, head (Germ. haupt, caput); habda, had, habuit; libda, lived, vixit; craft, vis; aflar, after; efno, even, pariter: compare further sueban, somnium, dat. sing. suefne, acc. plur. suebanos. At the end of words we always find f, and in one and the same word, therefore, we may find b and f alternately, as in clioban,

From Heine, Grammatik der Alt-Germanischen Sprachen, p. 104.

Leitzigl, at the beginning of a word: Interior, in the middle: Termination

<sup>2</sup> Initial, at the beginning of a word; Interior, in the middle; Terminational, at the end.

to cleave, pret. clof; wolf, gen. woltes; hof, court, yard (Germ.

hof), gen. hoties.

As to the mode of rendering the soft and surd aspirates some confusion exists in documents. The former is marked in the Cottonian text by  $\mathfrak{V}$  (rarely f), in the Munich Codex by  $\mathfrak{V}$  and b; the Psalms use always v, other documents v and f. For the termination f the Heliand has sometimes  $\mathfrak{V}$  (in the Munich Codex

as lit for lif, wit for wif, &c.

At the beginning of a word the Old Saxon is always identical with the Gothic f, which minor documents like to render by v:

van=fan, de; vohs=fohs, fox. Noteworthy is the digression of ft into ht, that is, from the labial aspirate into the guttural spirant, a case more frequent in Dutch, e.g. craht=craft, vis;

wher = after, post; compare Dutch cracht and achter, for the Engl. craft and after. ph and ff only in foreign words.

Anglo-Saxon. The media b, if initial, is always organic; in the middle and at the end of words it occurs only in the combinations mb and bb (the latter originating in bj). Examples:—

lamb, dumb, comb; libban, to live; häbban, to have.

The tenuis p is always organic, and never encroached upon by

other consonants.

The aspirate f also is always organic, and therefore identical with the Gothic, if it occurs at the beginning of a word, while in the middle and at the end its occurrence is far more frequent than in Old High German, even more so than in Gothic, for it often supplants the Gothic b, Old High German p. The organic f we have in the words wulf, gen. wulfes, Goth. vulfs, O. H. Germ. wolf, wolves, O. S. wulf, wulbes; heofian, to mourn, Goth.

hinfan, O.S. hioban.

The inorganic f in the place of the media b we find in seofon, seven (Goth. sibun, O. H. Germ. sipun, O. S. sibun); peof, thief, gen. peofes (Goth. piubs, piubis, O. H. Germ. diop, diobes, O. S. theof, theobes). From these examples it will become evident that the range of the Anglo-Saxon f is still further enlarged by the absence in this dialect of a soft labial aspirate like Old High German v, Old Saxon b. It is characteristic of Anglo-Saxon that whilst on the one hand it shares the Low German inclination of its sister dialects to convert the labial media, where it is not protected by certain consonants, into the aspirate—first at the end, later on in the middle of words as well, it objects, like the Old Norse, to a modification of the aspirate, and always uses the surd f, where Old Saxon and Old Frisian smoothe it down into v, and by this means produce a greater variety and elegance of sound.

The gemination pp is rare; ff occurs in the verb offrjan, to

offer, and in a few proper names.

Old Frisian. The media b is, as in the other dialects, always organic at the beginning of words, and occurs in the middle and at the end only in the combinations mb and bb, e.g. dumbe, stupid (Germ. dumm); crumb, crooked (Germ. krumm); hebba, to have. In all other cases it yields to the aspirate.

The tenuis p is, in its relations, identical with the same letter

in the other Low German dialects.

The aspirate f is so far identical with the Anglo-Saxon aspirate as it occurs, organic and inorganic, in the place of the media; but it differs from the Anglo-Saxon by admitting a modification of the f sound in the soft aspirate v, the former being preferred where the aspirate is initial or final, the latter where it stands in the middle of a word. Examples:—Uf, life, gen. Uves; gref, grave, gen. greves. But a succeeding t sound gives shelter to the f, hence efter, after; hafd, head; jeftha, aut.

The gemination pp is rare; ff only in foreign words, as offaria,

to offer.

Old Norse. The media is in the same relation as in the Low German dialects; hence it is organic at the beginning of words, and is superseded by the aspirate in the middle and at the end of words, except in the combinations mb and bb, e.g. kambr, comb; timbr, building (cf. Engl. timber and Germ. zimmer);

vömb, womb; gabba, to cheat.

As to the tenuis p, it is characteristic of the Old Norse dialect that it preserves that consonant in the combinaton pt in which the Low German dialects invariably reject it and form the combination ft, e. g. lopt, air (Germ. luft), Goth. luftus; opt, often (Germ. oft), Goth. ufta; krapt, strength, craft (Germ. kraft), A.S. craft. In this respect Old Norse occupies one and the same position with the cognate languages, as O. N. skript, a picture, and Lat. scriptum, A.S. scrift (Germ. schrift). Even where the root ends in f it is changed into p if a t follows it; e. g. gef-a, to give; gip-ta, in matrimonium dare; rif-a, to tear; rip-ta, to cleave. The radical f keeps its position before a t only in the 2nd pers. sing. of the preterite of the verb, e. g. rauf-t, destruxisti, from riuf-a. In later documents, however, pt is occasionally converted into ft in the middle, and into tt at the end of words; e. g. eftir for eptir, after; oth for opt, oft.

The gemination pp has its origin in mp, as kapp, fight (Germ.

kampf), O. Fris. komp, kemp, O. H. Germ. kempho.

The aspirate f is organic at the beginning of the word; in the middle and at the end it often represents the media b, and, as in

Anglo-Saxon, refuses the modification into v, unless we except a

few cases where an initial f is replaced by v.

This dialect in certain words vacillates between the combinations fn and mn, so that stafn, for instance, forms the dative stamui, and iamn stands for iafn; and, vice versa, safna for O. H. Germ. samanon. The gemination ff only in foreign words.

# 2. Dentals :- d, t, d (dh) | (th), z, 3

Gothic d, t, p. In the dental, as in the labial order, the media and aspirate stand in close relationship, so that the latter in certain positions takes the place of the former. Only the combinations ld, nd, rd, where the liquid shelters the media, are organically distinct from lp, np, rp, as kalds, cold; balps, bold, which can never become kalps and balds; vinds, wind; svinps, strong; vaurd, word; vairps, worth. If it occurs in any other combination, the media yields its place to the aspirate as soon as it becomes terminational, e. g. bindan, pret. banp (exceptionally band); the nominatives haubip, linhap, vitop, and their genitives, haubid-is, linhad-is, vitód-is. The aspirate may transplant the media even where the terminational s of the nominative follows it, as fahéps for fahéds, joy; mitaps for mitads. The tendency which manifests itself in the Gothic version of St. Luke's Gospel to restore, or perhaps rather to preserve, the ancient media in preference to the aspirate, is peculiar; hence nimid, capit, not nimip; sad, not sap, &c.

The tenuis is in many cases organic, in others it has usurped the place of the media. In the latter capacity we find it chiefly after the spirant h in the pret. of anomalous verbs which have dropped the derivative vowel, e. g. brahta, brought, for brahda; mahta, might (Germ. mochte), for mahda; paurfta for paurfda (Germ. durfte); kaupasta=kaupatta=kaupat-da (s from the dissimilation of the t, vide sub lit. s), from the verb kaupatjan, colaphizare; further, the anomalous preterite vissa=vista=vitta

= vit-da from vit-an, scire (Germ. wissen 1).

The aspirate p is in sound identical with the English th, and is sometimes represented by the former, the Runic, sometimes by our modern sign. Where the aspirate belongs to the root it remains unaltered though it recede to the middle of the word, hence qipan, to say, qap, qepum; yet we must notice frapjan, frop, sapere, and frods, sapiens.

Old High German d, t, z, z. According to Grimm's law the

<sup>1</sup> See the strong conjugation of the verb.

Gothic media is in Old High German represented by the tenuis, and this is done in strictly Old High German authors such as Kero and Tatian, whilst in Isidor and Otfried the Gothic media is preserved, so that the former uses the media at the beginning and in the middle, the tenuis always at the end of a word, and therefore writes dohter, daughter (Goth. dauhtar); worde, words (Goth. vaurda), but nom. sing. wort. The latter leaves the media at the beginning, but he replaces it not only at the end, but often in the middle of a word as well, and therefore writes dohter, like Isidor, but stantan, to stand, Goth. standan; hant, hand, Goth. handus. In Old High German we should for the Gothic combinations ld, nd, rd, expect lt, nt, rt, and for the Goth. lb, nb, rb, O. H. Germ. ld, nd, rd; but great confusion prevails in the practice of different authors, so that we find blinden instead of blinten, hand instead of hant (Goth. blindan, handus), and munt

instead of mund (Goth. munhs, mouth).

For the Gothic tenuis Old High German has the aspirate z, occasionally rendered by c, a sound which occurs in two modifications, as a surd or hard, and as a soft, of which Grimm renders the former by z, the latter by z, whilst in the Old High German documents z is put indiscriminately for both sounds. z always occurs as the initial aspirate: in the middle and at the end of a word it is found only when preceded by a liquid, as welzan, to revolve (Germ. wälzen); kranz, garland (Germ. kranz); wurz, wort (Germ. wurz), and where it corresponds to a Gothic tt, e.g. scaz, treasure, Goth. scatts; sizan, to sit, Goth. sittan. The soft aspirate z is used only in the middle and at the end of words, and always corresponds to the Gothic t, wazar, Goth. vato, water (Germ. wager1); fuoz, Goth. fotus, foot (Germ. fug); saz, Goth. sat, sat (Germ. saß).

The Gothic aspirate is in the strict Old High German replaced by the media; but in many documents this law is much relaxed. Isidor uses for the Gothic b, in whatever position it may occur. dh, which in sound may have resembled the Anglo-Saxon & (the English soft th), e.g. dhu, tu; dhër, is; wërdhan, fieri; chindh,

infans (Goth. bu, vairban, &c.).

Otfried and Tatian use th for Gothic b only at the beginning,

and replace it by d in the middle and at the end of words.

The gemination tt results by assimilation from tj, Goth. dj, as bittan, Goth. bidjan, to beg (Germ. bitten). dd occurs rarely, and is identical with tt: laddun (asseres) = lattun; but eddo is the Goth. aibbau.

<sup>1</sup> Commonly spelt wasser.

The dentals as applied by different authors yield the following paradigm: :—

		ISIDOR.	OTFRIED.	TATIAN.
Cottic, a, t, p; strict	Initial Interior Terminational	d, z, dh d, zs, dh t, zs, dh	d, z, th t, z, z, d t, z, z, d	t, z, th t, z, z, d t, z, z, d

Old Saxon d, t, &, th. At the beginning of a word the media is used just as in Gothic; so also in the middle and at the end of words, but with the following exceptions :- The O. S. ld, nd, rd, represent the identical Gothic combinations as well as the Goth. Ip, np, and rp, hence Goth. kalds, bindan and balps, anpar, show in O. S. the media, cald, bindan, bald, andar. When however the n is dropped the aspirate finds its place again, hence Jidan for findan, to find; mud, Goth. munps, O. H. Germ. munt, mouth (Germ. mund). Old Saxon does not object to the use of the media at the end of words where Gothic replaces it by the aspirate, therefore O. S. god, deus, for Goth. gubs; brild, bride (Germ. brant), Goth. brubs; so also the termination of the 3rd sing. pres. of verbs: bir-id, ner-id, salb-od. But the Old Saxon terminational media is sometimes affected in another way, so that it yields to the tenuis t (perhaps under Old High German influence) when it occurs at the end of a word, e.g. got for god, but gen. godis again; in the same manner dot, death, gen. dodis; werolt, world, gen. weroldis; behielt, pret. of behaldan, conservare.

The tenuis t, with the exception of the few mentioned cases, preserves its organic character and keeps aloof from any inter-

change with media and aspirate alike.

The aspirate appears hard in th, soft in  $\delta$ ; but these signs are not always adhered to in the different manuscripts. The Munich Codex has d and  $\delta$ , rarely th; the Cottonian th and  $\delta$  indiscri-

minately; smaller documents commonly th, rarely &.

Anglo-Saxon d, t,  $\delta$ , p. Besides its organic functions the media has frequently to form the substitute of the aspirate, the latter keeping its place after the liquids n and r, but yielding it to the media after l, so that the original distinction between ld and l $\delta$  is no longer preserved. Hence we find cald, ceald, cold, Goth. kalds; and bald, bold, Goth. balps. Compare Old Saxon.

In the preterite of strong verbs the terminational & of the root, as soon as it recedes from the end of the word, is replaced by the media, e. g. weore, fio; pret. weare, wurde, wurden, part.

worde; ewede, dico, cwäd, cwæde, cwædon.

<sup>1</sup> Heine, p. 105.

The tenuis is organic with one exception, which is characteristic of this dialect. Whenever the termination  $\delta$  in the 3rd sing. of strong verbs follows upon a dental or spirant of the root,  $d+\delta$ , or  $s+\delta$ , make t, and thus  $bind-\delta$ , he binds, becomes bint;

cýs-d becomes cfst, he chooses.

The aspirate is, as in most Low German dialects, modified into hard (b) and soft (8), which undoubtedly represent the twofold aspirates still extant in modern English, the soft in thine and soothe, the hard in this and sooth. As to the use of the soft or hard aspirate the manuscripts are so irregular as to render it impossible to form a rule from them, and many editors of manuscripts follow this lawless course. Rask, however, and Grimm after his example, make it a rule to use the hard aspirate b at the beginning, the soft of in the middle and at the end of words. Dr. Bosworth places by where the corresponding word in English has the hard th, and  $\delta$  where we find the soft th; hence he always puts b at the beginning of words not pronominal, as bincan, bin, and at the end of radical and inflectional terminations, as emib, writap. The soft & he always uses in the beginning of pronouns and in words derived from pronouns, as Sät, and Sätlic; and also between two vowels, as badian. Anglo-Saxon words are thus assimilated to modern English.

The connection between  $l\delta$  and ld has already been mentioned. Gemination of the aspirate is the result of assimilation, as in  $o\delta\delta e$ , or;  $si\delta\delta an$ , since (O. Engl. sith); or of contraction, as in  $cy\delta\delta u$ , home, O. H. Germ. chundida; or it is superfluously applied, as in  $sc\ddot{a}\delta\delta e$  for  $sc\ddot{a}\delta e$ , damage (Germ. schaden, cf. Engl. scathe).

Old Frisian d, t, th. The Old Frisian dentals occupy very much the same position as the Anglo-Saxon. The media, when initial, is organic. In the middle of a word the combination nd remains intact, as in bindan, the combination nth drops the n (compare A. S., &c.), as in kúth; ld is either organic or it takes the place of lth, hence halda, to hold, Goth. haldan, and bilde = bilthe, O. S. biliði; rd and rth are kept distinct, as gerdel, girdle; word; and irthe, earth, hirth, hearth. At the end of words the Old Frisian, like the Old Saxon media, remains faithful to its function in the words breid, bride; god; háfd, head; bed, asked (Germ. bat, Goth. bap); but in the terminations of the verb, d and dd yield, as in Gothic, to the influence of the aspirate, and become d and d ath, as werp-d, he throws (Germ. wirft); salv-dth, he anoints; Goth. valrp-ip, salb-olp, but O. S. wirp-id, salb-old.

The tenuis is almost throughout organic. When terminational it is sometimes dropped after a ch, as riuch for riucht, fiuch for fiucht; in the 3rd sing. pres. of the verb it replaces excep-

tionally the th, as nimat for nimath, and in like manner it stands for dat=dath, death; klit=kleth, cloth (Germ. kleid). Other documents place vice versa th for t, as weth for wet, A. S. wät, wet; with for wit. This last change, however, seems never to occur where t follows upon a mute or a spirant, and t therefore always preserves its position in words such as brust, nacht, aft.

The aspirate occurs under the sole sign of th, yet it is supposed by grammarians to have had a softer sound in the middle and at the end, than at the beginning of words. The aspirate and media interchange occasionally, as sada for satha, cespes, and steth for sted, stead, place. The gemination thth in aththa, father, judge, is better replaced by the single aspirate th.

Old Norse d, t, 8, p. The media, if initial, keeps always distinct from both tenuis and aspirate. In the middle and at the end of words the combinations dd, md, nd, and ld, are preserved, while n8 and l8 are everywhere changed into nn and ll. In all other cases the aspirate has much encroached on the media in the middle as well as at the end of words.

The tenuis t takes the place of the media in the sing. pret. of strong verbs, as gialda, valere, galt; halda, to hold, helt; falda, to fold, felt; compare further binda, batt; blanda, blett (vide supra, sub lit. n). The gemination tt is organic in skattr, tribute: it arises from nt in mitt, meum; pitt, tuum; sitt, suum; hitt, illud; eitt, unum; instead of mint, pint, sint, &c.; tuttugu=tvintugu, twenty. We find caused by assimilation also the gemination in the neuter of adjectives, the roots of which, having dropped a consonant, end in a vowel, e. g. fa-tt, paucum, from fa-r; ha-tt, altum, from ha-r, instead of fa-t, ha-t. For other encroachments on the media, see below.

The aspirate is either hard (b), or soft (d), the former being met with only at the beginning of words. The soft aspirate comprises a far wider range than it does in the Saxon dialects. The media which, as we have seen above, can only stand after l, m, n, and in the gemination dd, is replaced by the aspirate does after all the vowels and the consonants r, f, b, g, while upon the consonants p, l, k, s, the tenuis l usurps its place; hence d and d can no longer be distinguished after a vowel or the liquid r, as proved by the following examples:—ord, word, Goth. vaurd; iord, earth, Goth. airp; verda, to become (Germ. werden), Goth. vairpan; godr, good, Goth. gods. This rule concerning the replacement of the media by the aspirate or the tenuis in certain positions is of great importance in the formation of the preterite of weak verbs where the termination da is to be added, either unaltered or changed either into da or ta, according to the rule

just monimized. Hence we have the preterites ril-da, fram-da, from the verbs ril-ja, frem-ja, from the verbs ril-ja, frem-ja, from the verbs ril-ja, frem-ja, from the ril the neuter gender, and we therefore find hart for in the matter gender, and we therefore find hart for in the matter beath from reror, worthy; but where this to a recreded by a viwel it is assimilated into tt, and southers at the same time the preceding vowel, e. g. gott, neut. If part appears to the same time the preceding vowel, e. g. gott, neut.

# : First -g, c, k, q (kw), ch, h, hh

Greens i. i. The media i in the middle, as well as at the end if a wird is simetimes replaced by the spirant h, a change which cannot be accounted for by any apparent law. Hence spirally and a latter regard, raih. The geminations gg, gk, gq, are like the Greek 77.7c. nasal, and are therefore rendered in the other Tentonic dialects by ng, nk, e.g. Goth. stiggan, A. S. stigger. Geth. stigger, O. H. Germ. trinkan, to drink; Goth. singer. O. S. store, to sink. ggk, ggq, = gh, gq. As the single media, so also has its gemination, a certain relation to the spirant i, the latter appearing in derivative forms often in the place of the former, e.g. gaggan, to go, gahts, gait (Germ. gang: its ye, young, comp. juhica.

Whenever the derivative suffix t follows upon a radical g or k, the guttural must be changed into h, as mah-ta, potui, from may-aa; váh-tró from vakan, to wake: but in the 2nd sing. pret. the guttural is preserved before the terminational t, as may-t, potes; vák-t from vak-an, sók-t from sak-an, incusare.

q is identical with our qu = kw. As in hr, so in the combination q = kw, the  $\kappa$  sound seems to be a euphonic addition which has no etymological claim to its position, wherefore q is, in the cognate languages represented by the simple guttural, e. g.  $q\hat{e}ns$ , wife, Sansk. junis, Gr.  $\gamma vv\hat{\eta}$ . In later times, however, the usurper occasionally expels the legitimate guttural altogether, as in Goth.  $va\hat{u}rms$ , worms, instead of  $qa\hat{u}rms$ , Sansk. krimis. This phenomenon becomes more frequent in O. H. Germ., e. g. weinon, to weep (Germ. weinen), which in Gothic still shows the original guttural  $q\hat{u}inon$ .

The Greek & is rendered by ks.

Old High German g, k, ch (hh, h). The media, which in the strict Old High German should be replaced by the tenuis, does indeed, but rarely, occur instead of the legitimate tenuis; but it is frequently used to fill the place of the spirant j. But here again, as in the case of the dentals and labials, Old High German

authors differ in the mode of applying the media. Isidor keeps up the Gothic media both at the beginning and at the end of a word, but he applies the tenuis only at the end, hence got; stigan, steic (Germ. steigen, stieg). Before a thin vowel, e or i, he introduces an h, which appears to find a place there merely for the sake of preserving the guttural pronunciation of the g, as ghēban, to give, pret. gab, gheist, ghost (Germ. geist). Otfried

and Tatian use the media quite in the Gothic fashion.

In strict Old High German the Gothic tenuis k should be replaced by the aspirate ch, as is the case in Isidor, while Otfried and Tatian preserve the Gothic tenuis where it is terminational, but replace it by ch in the middle and at the beginning of words, except in the combinations lk, nk, rk, which even Isidor likes to retain. The combination sk is in Otfried and Tatian already softened into sg, which seems to be the transition sound to the later sch. Hence fisg=fisc, fish (Germ. fisch); himilisg=himilisc, heavenly (Germ. himmlisch), by the side of eiscon, eiscota.

The aspirate h, ch (=kh), as we have already seen, replaces the Gothic k. In the middle of a word this ch is sometimes rendered by hh, rarely by h, while at the end the latter has the preference. This h has of course nothing to do with the spirant h, from which it differed etymologically as well as in pronun-

eiation.

qu, answering to the Gothic q, is in strict Old High German authors rendered by chu; herein also, following Grimm's law, others write quh, or qhu, or simply ch, as chuëdan, quhëdan, chëdan, all different modes of spelling one and the same word.

x in Old High German is commonly rendered by hs.

The gemination kk (cc) used by Isidor and others is rendered by gg in Otfried and Tatian, and their kk is identical with the Gothic gemination of the same kind which in strictly Old High German is often replaced by cch.

The list of gutturals as used in the different Old High German

authors appears thus1:-

		ISIDOR.	OTFRIED.	TATIAN.
Gothic g, k; strict O. H. Germ. k, ch	( Initial	g (gh), ch	g, k	g, k
	Interior	g(gh), hh	g, ch	g, hh
	(Terminational .	c, h	g, h	g, h

Old Saxon g, c (k). The media, besides its organic functions, has often to supply the spirants j and k in certain positions. (Comp. supra, sub litt. j, k.)

The gemination has not the nasal sound of the Gothic, but

represents the Old High German kk, as in segg, man, vir; wigg, horse; seggjan, to say.

The tenuis is rendered by c or k, both representing the same guttural sound. In the combination sc the c has been dropped in the words sal, shall, debet; solun, debent. qu = kw.

The guttural aspirate occurs only exceptionally, and then it is inorganic, as in ahtodoch, eighty, by the side of ahtedeg. lichamo

is lic-hamo.

Anglo-Saxon g, c (=k). The media before thin vowels, e and i, was very likely pronounced like the spirant i, whence we find the preterites of gipan, to gape; gifan, to give; gitan, to conceive, to be geap, geaf, geat, where the e seems to be introduced for the sake of preserving for the g, before the preterite a, the same soft pronunciation it must have had before the vowel i of the present. Even before the full vowels g can form alliteration with ge, and with the spirant j itself. The organic media is in later documents often dropped in consequence of contraction, e.g. ren, rain, for regen (Germ. regen); ben, servant, for begen; binen, maid-servant, for bignan. gn occurs inverted into ng in the forms fringe, frang, frungon, gefrungen, instead of frigne, fragn, &c. (Concerning the conversion of the terminational g to h, see sub lit. h.) The gemination gg in later, cg in earlier documents is preserved even at the end of words, where other geminations prefer dissolution, e.g. ecg, edge; vicg, horse; secg, man; mecg, man; lecgan, to lay (Germ. legen).

The tenuis is commonly rendered by c, rarely by k, whence  $\acute{e}ce$ , cirm, sound  $\acute{e}ke$ , kirm. Before a t it must be changed into h. cv = qu. x is frequent, and occurs sometimes for hs, as in feax, coma, O.S. fahs; sometimes as the inversion of cs, as

fixas for fiscas; axe, ashes, for asce, Goth. azgó.

The guttural aspirate ch occurs only in later documents instead of the tenuis c, as chirche, ich, for cyrce, ic. The words lichoma (corpus), flæschoma (corpus), blächleor (pale-faced, fair), must be

read lic-homa, flæsc-homa, blac-hleor.

Old Frisian g, k. The initial g preceding e or é may be rendered by the spirant j, as jeva, to give; jeld, money (Germ. geld); jêst, ghost. The prefixes g, je, gi, drop the initial consonant, as unge, eat; ungath, eunt, for gunge, gungath; inth, fundit, from giata. When in the middle of a word g occurs preceded by e and followed by a thin vowel or consonant, it is vocalized, and with its antecedent vowel forms the diphthong ei, which occasionally is condensed into i; e.g. rein, rain, from regen; brein, brain, from bregen; neil, nail, from negel; further condensed into brin, nil, &c. Before full vowels, as a and u, the media g is preserved.

as in the plural forms degar, degum, wega, wegena; ein, own (Germ. eigen), for égin; keia, key; heia for hegen, retain the vocalized forms. At the end of a word g can only occur in the combinations ng and gg; in all other cases it is either vocalized, as wei, humour, for wég; or it is replaced by ch. The gemination gg is, in the middle of a word, either replaced by the palatal dz (vid. infra), as in sidza for sigga, segga, to say; or it has been vocalized, leia for O.S. leggjan, to lay; but rarely it remains as in eg, gen. egges, edge.

The tenuis is represented both by k and c, the latter, however, never occurring before e or i; k preserves its position in the middle and at the end of words, except where it yields to ch or the palatal. The gemination of the tenuis occurs rarely, as in smek, taste (Germ. geschmack), gen. smekkes; ekker, acre; stok, stokkes, stick (Germ. stock). qu = kw. w = hs in saw, knife,

sword; sextich, sixty.

Change of Gutturals into Palatals.—Peculiar to Old Frisian is the conversion of a guttural into a palatal whenever at the beginning or in the middle of a word it is followed by i or its Trübung e, even when the vowel is dropped. At the beginning of a word the media g is not affected: the tenuis k is replaced by a palatal sound, which we find rendered by sz and sth, whenever it precedes an i or e which is followed by a single consonant or by a combination which contains a liquid; e. g sthereke, church; szin for kin, chin: k remains in kerva, findere, to carve; kersten, Christian. Owing to a mistaken analogy this change is also effected before e where it is Umlaut of a, and e then is fond of passing into i, e. g. szetel and sthitel by the side of ketel, kettle, Goth. katils; tzilih, Lat. caliw; tzirl, tzerl, churl, A. S. ceorl; szelner, cellar, Lat. cellarium. The tenuis remains in keda, chain, Lat. catena; kempa, champion, &c.

In the middle of a word g is replaced by dz, and k by ts, tz, tsz, under the same conditions as mentioned in the preceding case. The combination ng is converted into nsz, nk into nz, e.g. ledza, O.S. leggjan, to lay; lidza, O.S. liggian, to lie; sedza, to say; spretsa and spreka, to speak; thenzja and thanka, to think. As to the pronunciation of these palatals, sz, sth, tz, and tsz, may have sounded like the English ch in 'church,' dz like g in 'gentleman.' In West Frisian, where the palatal is far more common than in East Frisian, they adopted a simpler mode of

rendering the palatal sounds by the letter z or s.

The negation ne as well as pronouns may, as occasionally in Anglo-Saxon, be joined to the following word, in which case an initial w, h, th, is dropped, e.g. nella=ne willa, nolle; nertha=

ne wertha, non fieri; nesa=ne wesa, non esse; nebba=ne hebba, non habere; mät=mä hit; thút=thu hit; mujem for muge him.

Old Norse g, k. The terminational g in the pret. sing. of strong verbs is often dropped, and in this case a preceding diphthong condensed into a single long vowel; ng under the same circumstances becomes kk, but a terminational g can in this case never become k. The gemination gg may be (1) = A S. eg, O. S. gg, as seggr, man; seggja, to say; leggja, to lay, better segja, legja, as in older manuscripts, since the gemination was the later result of the suppression of the j. (2) In the combinations egg and legg the media g is a converted j and was, according to Old Norse tendencies, doubled at the end and in the middle of words, thus egg, egg (A. S. legg, O. H. Germ. legg). (3) The combinations legg, legg

The tenuis k is also rendered by c, chiefly at the end of words; the gemination is ck in earlier, kk in later documents. The Old Norse gemination, however, very rarely occurs in cases parallel to the Anglo-Saxon gemination cc or the O. S. kk, as rekja, evolvere, O. S. rekkjan; but it commonly takes the place of ng, nk. kt is sometimes assimilated into tt. x=hs in lax, salmon; uxi, ox; vaxa, to wax, grow. vaxa in vaxa, va

dropped in setti, sixth. qu = kv.

### MIDDLE TEUTONIC.

## LIQUIDS.

Middle High German. *l* in some very rare cases supersedes *r*, and is itself superseded by *n*, e.g. *kilche* for *kirche* or *chirche*, church; *knobelouch*, garlic, for O. H. Germ. *chlobilouch*: by the

side of ode, oder, or, we find frequently alde.

The terminational m of the inflexions is now throughout (except dat. sing.) weakened into n, and even the m of the root yields occasionally to n, e.g. hein for heim, home; ohein for oheim, uncle; lan for lam, lame; arn for arm. But whenever this inorganic n takes its place again in the middle of the word it must return to m: lein, leimes; arn, armes. In modern German the terminational m has in this latter case been replaced. m is dropped in nën for nëmen, to take; kon for komen, to come; frun for frumen. These, however, are quite isolated forms.

n is, in the middle of words, occasionally dropped: sint, since, becomes sit (Germ. seit, cf. O. Engl. sith); O. H. Germ. chuning,

king, becomes künic (Germ. könig).

r suffers apocope in several adverbs: dá, there (Germ. da); rá, where (Germ. wo); hie, here (Germ. hier, obs. hie); sá, so (Germ. so), for O. H. Germ. dar, huar, hiar, sar; but the r is preserved in dar, thither; war, whither; hër, hither (O. H. Germ. dara, huara, hiara). Both mé and mér, more (Germ. mêr), are used. The fluctuation between r and s we shall notice hereafter (vid. sub lit. s). Peculiar to some manuscripts is the inversion of the prefix er when preceded by a word ending in a vowel, or r, or n; e. g. dorebeizte dó erbeizte, wirreslagen = wir erslagen, unrechant = unerchant. The r is dropped in wëll for wërlt, world

(Germ. welt).

The gemination of liquids is rather frequent: Il is organic in the words all, all; vallen, to fall; stal, gen. stalles, stall; vel, gen. velles, skin; gëllen, to shout; swellen, to swell: inorganic Il arises chiefly out of li, e.g. helle, hell; stellen, to put; wille, will; hülle, cover. mm is organic in klimmen, to climb; swimmen, to swim; brimmen, to roar; - inorganic for mb (mp), in wamme = wambe, womb; kam = kamb, comb; zimmer = zimber, timber, building; amt = ambet, O. H. Germ. ambaht, ambitus; for mn, stimme = stimne, voice; verdammen from damnen, to damn, nn is organic in spinnen, to spin; gewinnen, to win; condemn. bannen, to banish; tanne, fir; minne, love; brunne, fountain; sunne, sun; dunne, thin; -inorganic from ni: henne, hen; kunne, kin; brünne, armour, breast-plate; -from mn: nennen, Goth. namnjan. rr organic: wërren, to impede; kërren, to grunt; sperren, to close; zerren, to tear, to tease; -inorganic from rs: irre, erroneous; dürre, dry; -from rn: verre for verne, far (Germ. fern); but stërre is only dialectically used for the common stërne, star (Germ. stern, Goth. stairnô, O. N. stiarna, O. H. Germ. sterno; but O. S. sterro, A. S. steorra).

Old and Middle English. l in words of Anglo-Saxon origin is commonly preserved; in such of French derivation it is often softened into u, e.g. O. Engl. faus, false; assaut, assault; caudron, caldron; shaffaut, scaffold. It is dropped in eche, each, A.S. ælc; whiche for wilke, A.S. hwylic, which; O. Engl. swilke,

M. Engl. swiche, A. S. swilic, such.

m and n occupy the same position as in Anglo-Saxon. Where in this dialect they are dropped, they remain so through Old English, Middle English, and New English. m is dropped

<sup>1</sup> vôde, wood, lignum, has nothing in common with the Dutch woud, forest, silva; the former being the A.S. wudu, lignum, the latter the A.S. weald, silva.

already in A. S. ff for Goth. fimf, five (Germ. fünf); softe, O. H. Germ. samfte, soft (Germ. sanft). n is regularly omitted before f, s, &: A. S. gos, goose; to&, tooth; is, us, for O. H. Germ. kans, Goth. tunpus, unsis; Germ. gans, zahn, uns, where the n is preserved: so also konnte for Engl. could, M. Engl. coude, A. S. cide, pret. of cunnan. But Old English frequently drops n where Anglo-Saxon had retained it, i. e. in inflexions and the terminations of adverbs, e.g. A. S. citan, foran, kinan, kwanan, nion, itan, panan; O. Engl. and M. Engl. afer, after, before, kenne, kennes, kens, hence; wanne, whennes, whense, whence, &c.

r occupies the same position as in Anglo-Saxon. The metathesis of r, which in Anglo-Saxon already had begun, continues in Old English, as brid, bridde, bird; A. S. brid and bird; wrotte, wrought, worked, A. S. wohrte, wrotte; frost, A. S. frost and forst; bernen, to burn, A. S. beornan, brinnan (Germ. brennen); rennen and ernen, to leak, to run, A. S. rinnen, irnan (Germ. rin-

nen); kerse, cress, A. S. cresse and cerse.

### SPIRANTS.

Middle High German. w must be kept altogether distinct from the soft aspirate v, so that winden, wand, wunden, are differ: ent words from vinden, vand, vunden. In the middle of words the spirant occurs chiefly between two vowels, e.g. frouve, wom (Germ. frau); riuwe, repentance (Germ. reue); sënewe, sine (Germ. sehne), where the preceding vowel may be dropped, melwe for melewe, meal (Germ. mehl); varwe for varewe, color (Germ. farbe); so also in grawen, to become grey (Germ. ergrauen) clawen, ungulis (Germ. klauen); pfawe, peacock (Germ. pfau) 🗲 klewes, gen. of kle, clover (Germ. klee). While thus the spiran w remains in its ancient position after long vowels, it appears that it affects short vowels which precede it, and, in accordance with the general tendency of the development of the language to destroy ancient correptions, changes ew, iw, uw, into euw, iuw, ouw,—iuw especially being a most favourite combination in the Middle High German dialect, so that it stands not only for iw, but even for the organic iu, as fluwer, tiuwer, for fiure, fire (Germ. feuer); tiure, dear (Germ. teuer). By this confusion of iw and iuw the strong conjugations are materially affected and two classes thrown into one, so that schrien, pret. schrei, has in the plur. and part. schriuwen, geschriuwen, instead of schriwen, geschriwen; and bliuwen, pret. blou, has in the plur. and part. bliuwen, gebliuwen, instead of bluwen, gebluwen. all these cases the w is not introduced for the sake of euphony,

but has been organically developed from the vowel u, an origin which plainly shows its nature as a true spirant and its distinctness from the aspirate v; and this fact is further illustrated by the interchange of w and h which existed in Old High German already, as O. H. Germ. sähen for säwen, to sow; föhé for föwe, few; and M. H. Germ. schiuwen for schiuhen, vereri (Germ. scheuen).

At the end of words the spirant was preserved in Gothic after long vowels or consonants, as aiv, valv; after a short vowel it was vocalized in u, as snau, kniu, instead of snav, kniv: in Old High German the spirant at the end of words was always either vocalized in u or o, or suffered apocope; in Middle High German it always suffers apocope without being vocalized, where it stands in unaccentuated terminations, as mel, gar, O. H. Germ. melo, meal, garo, ready; also in the accentuated root, when it follows after a, e, i, uo, ie, as gra, grey; bra, brow; spi, spue; mo, quiesce; hie, succidit; as also in the terminational ou, in, eu, we have apocope of the w, e.g. blou, tou, niu, getriu, for blouw, flagellavit (conf. Engl. blow, ictus); touw, dew; niuw, new, &c. Even in the middle of words w is always dropped where syncope of the terminational e takes place, whence bran instead of brawen, dat. plur. of bra, brow; froude instead of frouwde, toun instead of touwen.

j at the beginning of words is not very frequent. Examples are ja, yes; jar, year; jagen, to chase; jamer, grief (Germ. jammer); Jehen, to say, speak, admit; junc, young; jener, ille. In the middle of words j has commonly been dropped, except in a few words where it kept its position after l and r by transforming Itself into g, as ferge, ferry, nautus, for ferje; tilgen, delere, A.S. dilgjan; but immediately after a long vowel the spirant has more frequently been preserved, as bluejen, to bloom (Germ. blühen); bruejen, Germ. brühen; gluejen, to glow (Germ. glühen); fruege, early, præcox (Germ. frühe). In all these words the ue is the Umlaut of uo, caused by the spirant j, the remainder of the verbal suffix ja: where, therefore, the j is dropped the cause of the Umlaut is removed, and the original vowel uo resumes its place, as in the contracted infinitives bluon, bruon, The same rule holds good for the combination aj in kræjen, to crow; sæjen, to sow; mæjen, to mow, which are contracted into blan or blan, kran or kran, &c. After ue as well as a the spirant j is occasionally replaced in manuscripts by g. The contractions we have just mentioned have led to some confusion, because words with the combination ah are also contracted into a, as ban, dran, for bahen, drahen, just as schuon for schuohen, calceis, and ruon for ruowen, quiescere; and when the contraction again was dissolved, it easily happened that dran became the drajen, and kran became krahen.

s. The simple spirant is preserved in many words. Examples:

—glas, glass; gras, grass; hase, hare; nase, nose; esel, ass; rie,
giant; sus, thus; kase, cheese; wise, wise (Germ. weis); spie,
meat (Germ. speise); lós, loose; róse, rose; más, mouse (Germ.
maus); lús, louse (Germ. lause); túsent, thousand (Germ. tausend). ros, horse; kus, kiss; gewis, certain, take in the middle
of the word the gemination. The s which in Old High German
had been changed into r is not replaced again, therefore ber,
berry; mér, more; rór, reed, Goth. basi, máis, ráus. On the
whole, the spirant s shows far more stability than either w or h,
if we except the case of rhotacism we have just mentioned.

The Real Property and the Second

h, as an initial, is inorganic in heischen, to urge, where the older manuscripts have still the correct form eischen: in a similar manner heidechse by the side of eidechse, lizard. At the end of words h is always converted into ch. In the middle of words his retained between two vowels, as slahen, to slay (Germ. schlar gen); trahen, a tear (Germ. thräne); zaher, a tear (Germ. zähre); sëhen, to see (Germ. sehen); vihe, cattle (Germ. vieh); zëhen ten (Germ. zehn); dahe, clay (Germ. thon); vahen, to catch (Germ. fangen); nahen, near (Germ. nahe). It is interpolated between two vowels, an occurrence which in Gothic and Old High German already is observed, and then tends to preser the shortness of the preceding vowel. In modern German t object would be obtained by doubling the consonant, while h used just in the opposite case, to lengthen the preceding vow Middle High German consequently writes Danihel, Gabrihel, order to avoid the forms Daniel, Gabriel. h is dropped alt gether with its succeeding vowel where syncope takes place, stál, ván, hán, for stahel, steel (Germ. stahl); vahen, to catc (Germ. fangen); hahen, to hang (Germ. hängen).

The most important combinations which this spirant form are hs and ht. Examples of the combination hs:—wahs, wax (Germ. wachs); wahsen, to wax (Germ. wachsen); ahsel, axle (Germ. achsel); söhs, six (Germ. sechs); fuhs. fox (Germ. fuchs); ohse, ox (Germ. ochse); flahs, flax (Germ. flachs)—examples all of which are found in Old High German already, and which in Anglo-Saxon and English render the hs by ks(x), and in Modern German by chs pronounced like ks. ht occurs in the words aht, eight (Germ. acht); maht, might (Germ. macht); naht, night (Germ. nacht); man-slaht, man-slaughter (cf. Germ. schlacht); röht, right (Germ. recht); föhten, to fight (Germ. fechten); tohter, daughter (Germ. tochter); lieht, light (Germ. licht).

. With this M. H. Germ. At corresponds A. S. At in the identical words, akta, mikt, nikt, &c., the former represented by the Modern Germ. ckt, the latter by the Engl. gkt. At has arisen from the foreign ct in dikten (Lat. dictare, Germ. dichten), and in rare instances is used for the German ct and gt, as in the anomalous preterites, mokte, might (Germ. mochte), suchte, sought (Germ. suchte), &c., which in O. H. Germ. already had kt. At is sometimes used for the organic ckt, as in lakt, makte, schakte.

Old and Middle English. The spirant w is in Old English sometimes replaced by the aspirate v, as was and vas, wende and **rende.** The Teutonic w is rendered in French by gu, and many Teutonic words have come back into English in their French garb. Hence it happens that of some words we have in English the German and the French form side by side, as wile and guile, werd and guard, &c. (Compare the same letter under the headings, New Teutonic, English.) w is preserved in the middle of words after long vowels, e. g. blawe, knowe, sowe, grewe, but it is dropped in O. Engl. feor, four, A.S. feower; saule, soul, A.S. sivel; wheel, M. S. kweowol; and in compounds, as O. Engl, oht, aught, A. S. dht, duht, d-wiht, quædam res; noht, naught, A.S. n-a-wiht. n is the negation ne. The terminational w is dropped in O. Engl. tre and kne, where Anglo-Saxon already writes more frequently treb and cneb than trebw and cneów; it is vocalized when following e, as M. Engl. blew, grew, sew, threw. The Anglo-Saxon combination wl drops the w, but we retains it, as O. Engl. wrape, wrath; wreken, to wreak. The Anglo-Saxon cw is represented in Old English by qu: quellen, from which N. Engl. to quell and to kill; O. Engl comen, to come, A. S. cuman and cwiman. The A. S. hw is inverted in wh, O. Engl. wher, what, white; or w simply is used, as wer, wat, wen. Middle English adopts wh exclusively.

j, the Anglo-Saxon spirant, is replaced in Old English by g or z, as ge and ye, get and yet. Where j occurs in the middle of a word, Old English assimilates it to the preceding consonant, and the gemination is preserved in Middle English and New English, e.g. sellan for seljan. But for the lost Anglo-Saxon spirant letter a new j comes into the language with the French spirant j, which in Old English is rendered by g or j, as gewes and Jews, gywel and jewel. In Middle English it becomes more frequent, the greater the number of French words imported, and here also it is sometimes replaced by g, sometimes even by ch, as subjettes, suget, sochet—all standing for the French sujet; magestee for majesté. From this it would almost appear as if g, j, and ch, had

been very similar if not identical in pronunciation.

s in Anglo-Saxon already yields often to rhotacism, as pret. sing. ceds, elegi; forleds, amisi; dreds, cecidi; plur. curon, forluron, druron; part. coren, forloren, droren. In Old English the r disappears from the preterite, but is preserved in the participle—ycorn, lorn; but even in these, Middle English drops the r and replaces the s—chosen, lost (but the Old English form in the M. Engl. and N. Engl. forlorn). s is preserved by a succeeding t, as in dorst, durst, dare, A. S. dearr=dears, Goth. daurs. A. S. sc becomes in Old English and Middle English sh and sch, or sc and sk, e. g. skam and scham, ship and schip (sometimes even ss).

h before l, n, r, where in Anglo-Saxon it was often omitted, is never used in Old English, hence A. S. hlaf, bread; hladan, to lade; hlud, loud; hring, ring; hnecca, neck, are in Old English lone, laden, lud, ring, necke. hw, as we have already observed, becomes in Old English wh, or simply w; in Middle English always wh. h in the middle and at the end of words was, in Anglo-Saxon, already often dropped, as sleahan, slean, to slay; seohon, seon, to see; taher, tær, tear; ráh, rá; fáh, fá; táh, tá; feoh, feo; sceoh, sceo; O. Engl. slen, sen, tere, roe, foe, toe, fe, sho. Final h is often turned in Old English and Middle English into g, sometimes gh, as A. S. heah, O. Engl. hig, hie, M. Engl. hig, heig, N. Engl. high; A. S. neah, O. Engl. nig, nie, M. Engl. nig, neig, N. Engl. nigh; A.S. beoh, O. Engl. begh, M. Engl. thigh and thie, N. Engl. thigh; A.S. beah, O. Engl. bogh, M. Engl. tho, though, N. Engl. though. The A.S. h in the combination ht is rendered in Old English and Middle English by ht, gt, or ght, the latter remains in New English (vid. New Teutonic, English). The h in French words, when initial, was sometimes dropped, sometimes retained, probably never pronounced, as honour and onour, homage and omage, heir and eyr.

## MUTES.

## 1. Labials.

Middle High German. The relation of the tenuis and media of labials, as of mutes in general, is regulated by rules unknown to Old High German, according to which at the end of words only the tenues, in the middle of words only the mediæ, are admissible. If therefore a media happens to occur at the end of a word, it must be changed into the tenuis, and if a tenuis finds its place in the middle of a word, it must be changed into the media, e. g. geben, gap, give, gave; diep, thief, gen. diebes.

The relation of the aspirate is rather complicated, because,

as in Old High German already, this class of letters very often evades the application of Grimm's law. The Gothic or Saxon tenuis is in Middle High German in accordance with the rule represented by the aspirate; but the organic b of Low German, which in High German should be rendered by p (as d by t), commonly preserves its position in the latter dialect too, and yields to the tenuis p only at the end of words. The media, therefore, which in High German properly has to take the place of the Low German aspirate, is already engaged elsewhere, and the aspirate left to shift for itself. Thus then we have two distinct aspirates in High German, one which stands for the Gothic tenuis, the other which runs parallel to the Gothic aspirate. The former occurs as an initial chiefly in words taken from the Latin, where they show the tenuis p which Old High German already Germanized into ph, pph, pf, as pfaffe, papa; pfawe, pavo; pflanze, planta; pfunt, pondus; pfilaere, pilarius. These words consistently retained in Low German the Latin tenuis, as we see on comparing the English words plant, pound, pillar, &c. It indeed appears that all the words beginning with a pf are of a foreign origin, though in many cases they are of such ancient date and thorough German type that one feels inclined to seek for a Teutonic descent. But in this we must chiefly inquire whether the word exists in several or in but one Teutonic dialect, whether it has a root in a Teutonic or in a foreign language; if the former is the case, its Teutonic origin is more likely, if the latter, we may put it down as a foreign word. Thus Grimm derives pfat, path, O. S. padh, from the Gr. πάτος: for if it were German it would use the common aspirate f or v instead of the ph, as does vuoz, L. Germ. fot, foot, for not-os. Even pfluoc, A.S. plog, O. N. plogr, plough (Germ. pflug), is set down as foreign; and the verb pflegen, solere, which has the essentially Teutonic characteristics of the Ablaut, claims in vain a Teutonic descent, for the existence of its Ablaut, though beyond a doubt in Middle High German, is very uncertain in Old High German, Old Norse and Old Saxon; and in Gothic the word is wanting altogether. In the middle of words this pf (instead of f) occurs as a favourite combination with the liquid m, e.g. kampf, fight; tampf, vapour (Germ. dampf); strumpf, stocking; stumpf, truncus, stump: pf with n occurs only after the prefix en for ent, O. H. Germ. anti, as enpfähen, to receive (Germ. empfangen); enpfinden, to feel (Germ. empfinden); enfliehen, to escape (Germ. entfliehen). This pf is very common after short vowels, as zopf, cirrus; apfel, apple; zapfe, tap; kripfen, to gripe, rapere; copfer, copper; tropfe, drop. (But the same words occur

with ff as well.) After long vowels, however, whether in the middle or at the end of words we find only f, never pf or ff, as slaf, slafes, sleep; grifen, greif, to gripe; triefen, trouf, to drop;

f always after l, commonly after n and r, never after m.

The second aspirate, which runs parallel to the aspirate in Low German is sometimes indicated by v, sometimes by f, which the manuscripts use indiscriminately. Grimm proposes to use v in all cases; but editors of manuscripts generally adopt f before u, and some of them even before iu, l, and r, where others prefer v, so that we may in one and the same word find v and f as the initial, e.g. vinden, vant, funden, find, found, found. middle of a word v should always be used, never f; for in this position it really indicates the soft aspirate and exchanges with f, as does b with p, or d with t; hence wolf, wolves, wolf; zwivel, doubt; frevel, crime; hof, hoves, court: but on the whole examples of this kind are rare in purely Teutonic words. For the opposite reason for which we require v in the middle, we put f always at the end of words. Foreign words always retain their f; but the v of foreign words always becomes f at the end, as brief (Lat. breve), whilst at the beginning it may be rendered by f or v.

The organic gemination of p is very frequent; ff, where it occurs, is inorganic, and stands for the terminational pf, which is commonly changed into ff in the middle of the word. bb is

found in foreign words only.

Old and Middle English. The tenuis holds the same position as in Anglo-Saxon. It is interpolated in the words, O. Engl. sempster, seamster, A. S. seamestre; solempne, solemn. (Compare New Teutonic, English.) The media also, when occurring at the beginning or in the middle of a word, remains intact; but as a final letter it is often dropped, as lam, dum, wam, clime, by the side of lamb, dumb, wamb (womb), climb. It is interpolated after m in M. Engl. slomber, to slumber, A. S. slumerian; O. Engl. and M. Engl. limb, A. S. lim. The aspirate f is often replaced in Old English by its softer relative v, where it is initial, as vogel, bird, for fogel, vul for ful, visc for fisc, fish-in which case New English always replaces the hard aspirate; and frequently in the middle of a word—in which latter case the soft aspirate remains in New English too (see New Teutonic, English). f is dropped in M. Engl. hefed, hed, head, A. S. heafod, O. Engl. and M. Engl. wifman, wimman, womman, A. S. wif-man. ph and f are in Old English and Middle English often used indiscriminately, as Farisee and Pharisee, Filippe and Philippe, and Middle English replaces ph by f, as in fantom, fantasie. Thus we observe in

Old English and Middle English a great inconsistency in the application of the letters v and f, f and ph, until, in New English, the national idiom decides in favour of one or another in each particular word.

The Romance v is always adopted with the foreigh word, e.g.

veray, true, very (French vrai), vertew, vessell, &c.

# 2. Dentals.

Middle High German. The general relations between media and tenuis we have touched upon already; as a rule the tenuis always supplants the media at the end of a word, and vice versa, the tenuis, when receding from the end to the middle of a word, must be changed into the media. This rule however must so far be modified, as the roots of strong verbs ending in id, ied = Goth. eip, iup, change d into t not only at the end but in the middle of the word too, if they have a short vowel in the Ablaut. Examples:—sniden, sneit, snite, gësniten, to cut (Germ. schneiden, schnitt, geschnitten); sieden, sôt, suten, gesoten, to seethe, boil (Germ. sieden, sott, gesotten). This process in Middle High German is something parallel to the change of d into d in Anglo-Saxon, e.g. snidan, snidan; sëodan, sudon.

When two words, the former ending in s, the latter beginning with d, coalesce into one, the d is changed into the tenuis t, e. g. bistu, muostu, listu, deste=des diu (=Lat. quo and eo with the

comp.), lis du (imp. lege).

As the tenuis supplants the media at the end, in a like manner the media may supersede the tenuis when in the middle of a word it occurs after l, m, or n. This is chiefly the case with the termination te of the weak verb, as kante and kande, cognovit; runte and runde, excessit; wolte and wolde, voluit. The combinations de and te are sometimes dropped by syncope, as schat = schadet, gesmit = gesmidet, ermort = ermordet, gekleit = gekleidet, trit=tritet, bit=bitet. This syncope, as we see from the examples, takes place in the 3rd pers. sing. of the present tense, and especially in the pret. part. of weak verbs. It is strange that it does not affect the radical vowel at all, while similar syncope with gutturals lengthens the preceding vowel.

z occurs in two modifications z and z (see supra, Old High German), and the rule for their application is pretty much the same as in Old High German. At the beginning of a word we find always z, as also in the middle and at the end of words after the liquids l, n, r, and after short vowels; z, on the other hand, is rarely used after consonants, but very frequently after vowels.

With consonants it chiefly occurs where syncope has taken place, e.g. hanz = han ez, hirz = hir ez. When it is used after long vowels we put it both at the end and in the middle of a word; occurring after a short vowel it is single z at the end, and zz in the middle of the word, e. g. az azen, beiz bizzen. z is dropped in the verb lan, lat, lie, for lazen, laezet, liez, and before the superlative termination ste, where z, together with its succeeding vowel suffers syncope, as groeste, beste, leste, for groeziste, bezziste, leggiste, greatest, best, last; sometimes with 'rück-Umlaut,' groste, baste.

The gemination tt occurs after the vowels a and especially i; dd never. zz is commonly rendered by tz (sometimes c or cz), e. g. katze, cat; tatze, foot, claw; setzen, to place, to set; wetzen, to wet; witze, wit; switzen, to sweat; hitze, heat. (Compare the t in the identical English words and the tz in Germ. katze, tatze, zz: gazze, street (Germ. gaße1); wazzer, water (Germ. waßer); hazzen, to hate (Germ. haßen); nezzel, nettle (Germ. negel); mezzer, knife (Germ. meger); ëzzen, to eat (Germ. egen); wizzen, to wit, know (Germ. wifen). (Concerning the relation of this 5 to the Modern German 8 and the English t, see New Teutonic, German.)

The combinations into which dentals enter with other consonants remain on the whole the same as in Old High German, so that even tw and dw are still kept distinct, as in twere, dwarf (Germ. zwerg), and dwerch, athwart (Germ. zwerch); the latter, however assuming in late Middle High German documents the inorganic form tw, which, like the organic tw, is in New High German converted into zw (see New Teutonic, German), while the Middle High German zw represents the same combination

in Old High German.

Old English and Middle English. The Anglo-Saxon tenuis t, in its initial position, is preserved through Old English, Middle English, and New English, and even in the middle and at the end of words, Old English persistently keeps up the Anglo-Saxon tenuis which in Middle English occasionally, and more frequently in New English, had to yield to the encroachment of other consonants. (See New Teutonic, English.)

The fluctuation between the media d and the soft aspirate & which had commenced in Anglo-Saxon already, continues in Old English and Middle English, as hider, wider, weder, or wither, &c., until New English finally decided in favour of the aspirate hither, whither, weather. The media is dropped in O. Engl.

<sup>1</sup> Commonly spelt gasse, &c.

gepell, for A. S. god-spell; O. Engl. answeren, A. S. and-swarian, Germ. ant-worten. d is interpolated in punder, thunder, A. S.

eser.

Though the distinction of a soft and a hard aspirate, which Anglo-Saxon indicated by the signs & and p very probably continued in Old English (as in fact it exists in the English of the present day), the distinction was no longer kept up in writing, and Old English documents commonly rendered both aspirates by p, Middle English by th.

d for the in O. Engl. magde, maid; redie, ready (A. S. mæge's and mægden, hræ's and hræd); M. Engl. cude, could; O. Engl.

quod, quoth; A. S. cvæð.

z, which is no Anglo-Saxon letter, becomes in Old English mther numerous, being imported with French words, and later on assuming an unusual position by supplanting the organic g, e.g. dozter for dogter, daughter, zeres for geres, zimmes for gimmes, gems. From this inorganic position, however, z soon disappears again, and is restricted to its place in foreign, i.e. non-Teutonic words.

# 3. Gutturale.

Middle High German. The tenuis is commonly rendered by k, in some manuscripts by c; Grimm puts c at the end, k at the beginning and the middle of words. The gemination kk is expressed by ck. Some manuscripts use ch in words where the correctness of the tenuis k cannot be doubted, and such erroneous spelling must be considered a fanciful innovation of the copyists. This is especially the case at the beginning of words, where High German, instead of following Grimm's law by placing the aspirate ch for the Low German tenuis, prefers to adopt the latter and keep it up in spite of rules and laws, while the dentals and labials are more consistent in this case and introduce the regular aspirate, z for t, and pf for p. But on the other hand the High German k also takes the place of the Gothic g, and follows in this the dictates of Grimm's law. Thus then in German words k commonly corresponds (1) to the Gothic k, chiefly at the beginning of words, which however may be turned into the aspirate in the middle and at the end of words, and (2) to the Gothic media g chiefly at the end of words, where Middle High German never tolerates any media whatever, but always converts it into the tenuis. The interchange of the guttural tenuis and media is regulated by the same rules laid down for dentals and labials.

q is a frequently occurring consonant at the beginning and in the middle of words; at the end it is, as we have just stated, always replaced by the tenuis. q suffers syncope in morne for morgene, to-morrow; pflit, tit for pfliget; liqt, suescit, jacet. It is vocalized in i in the combination eg, e being the Umlaut of a more ancient a in aqi (the Umlaut produced by the inflexional i); and sometimes both the forms eg and ei are used side by side, e. g. leite = legte, laid, posuit; treit = treqt, fert; eise = egese, fear; meide = megede, maid; gein = gegen, versus (cf. a-gain, a-gain-st); getreide = getregede, corn. Later authoris introduce the vocalization ei even for age, as meit = maget, kleit = klaget, plangit; seit = saget, dicit; ge-seit = ge-saget, dictus: the Umlaut e in these words is, of course, inorganic, because for klagt, magt, no forms like klegt, megt exist. A case opposite to this vocalization

of g in i is the development of g from j (see sub lit. j).

The media q sometimes supplants the h in the conjugation of the strong verb, so that (1) the verb ziehen, for instance, in the pret. and pret. part. adopts everywhere g for h when the latter recedes from the end to the middle of the word, as züge, traxisti; zugen, traxerunt; gezogen, tractus; at the end however it must not be changed into the tenuis zôc, zuoc; though we find the aspirate in zoch, which stands for the original h in zoh. (2) Some verbs change the final ch (which stands for h) into c (which stands for g), e.g. slahen, to slay, pret. sluoc, sluege, sluogen, geslagen, instead of sluoh, sluehe, &c. To the same category belongs the word genuoc, genuoge, enough, for Goth. ganohs, ganohai, and the inorganic forms of the verb sehen, to see. Such changes of h into c and g in the conjugation of the strong verb occur sometimes in Old High German already, and become still more frequent in New German, where they even affect the forms of the present tense.

ch has two distinct sources from which it derives its origin:—
(1) it stands for the spirant h: noch, ad hue; doch, tamen; joch, atque; in the preterites sach, saw; geschach, happened; zoch, drew; floch, flew; nach, after; hoch, high; schuoch, shoe; (2) for the Gothic tenuis when preceded by a vowel in the middle or at the end of a word. This ch is essentially distinct from the preceding one, inasmuch as it retains its position on receding from the end into the middle of the word, where the first ch is replaced again by h. Examples:—ach (interj.), bach, brook; dach, roof; swach, weak; wachen, to wake; brechen, to break; rechen, to wreak; ich, mich, dich, sich, pronouns; woche, week; bleich, bleak, pale; eich, oak; siech, sick; buoch, book; suochen, to seek. (3) When it occurs in combination with s, the Gothic

dways becomes ch, as schin, splendour; schrift, writ; lëschin, quench. These three different kinds of ch are preserved in ew High German, whilst all others with few exceptions are reaced again by the tenuis k. As we have mentioned before, even Middle High German the aspirate ch does not occur at the beinning of a word. In Middle High German ch has occasionally to origin in the conflux of two syllables, as siecheit = siech-heit, ickness; junchërre = junc-herre, a young nobleman, a junker. Where thus c and h flow together New High German puts k instead, as in junker. Where ch occurs before the termination t of the verb, it does not, like the N. H. Germ. cht, supplant ht, but is owing to contraction, as bricht = brichet; N. H. Germ. cht is always M. H. Germ. ht. The geminations kk (ck) and gg are frequent. (Concerning the combinations hs and ht, see sub lit h.)

Old and Middle English. The k sound of Anglo-Saxon words is commonly preserved before dark vowels and the liquids l, n, r. Whilst Anglo-Saxon uses c only to indicate the guttural tenuis, Old English and Middle English apply c and k indiscriminately for the same purpose. Before the thin vowels e and i we sometimes find in late Anglo-Saxon already k changed into ch, and this wayward alteration has been kept up to the present moment. Thus in O. Engl. and M. Engl. kepe, kene, king, we have the Anglo-Saxon guttural tenuis cépan, cêne, cyning; but in O. Engl. and M. Engl. chin, child, chicken, the Anglo-Saxon tenuis cin, ild, cicen, has been converted into the palatal ch. In Teutonic vords, late Saxon and early Old English authors sometimes used (c) and ch side by side, as ic and ich, I; dic and dich, thee; enc and bench, awaken and awachen; where ch no doubt had the Before the A.S. y, which is Umlaut of u, one would xpect to see the guttural tenuis preserved; but even in this case sometimes yielded to ch; thus we find the k sound, preserved 1 O. Engl. and M. Engl. kin, king, A. S. cyn, cyning; changed to ch in O. Engl. and M. Engl. chirche, church, for kirke Where in Anglo-Saxon c precedes ea, eo, ea, Old inglish decides in favour of ch, whether the thin vowel or the ark vowel ultimately gained sole possession; e.g. O. Engl. and I. Engl. chalk, chaff, chester, cherl, chepmon, merchant (Germ. aufman), A. S. cealc, ceaf, ceaster, ceorl, ceapman. O. Engl. kerfen lone preserves the guttural of A. S. ceafor, where New English irther introduces the guttural ch, chafer.

The Anglo-Saxon g, in its initial position, commonly remains stact in the succeeding periods of Saxon speech; but in the comination ge it is in Old English and Middle English commonly

vocalized in *i* or *y*<sup>1</sup>, especially in the past participle of the verified where it represents the augment *ge*-which is still preserved in the German and Dutch verb. Examples are abundant in every cold English and Middle English author, of which we mention few for the sake of illustration:—*i-seen*, seen (Germ. ge-schen); *i-cume*, come (Germ. ge-kommen); *i-geten*, eaten (Germ. ge-sesen); *i-last*, lasted; *i-wiss*, certain (Germ. ge-wiss); *y-wood*, wont, accustomed (Germ. ge-wohnt); *i-armed*, *y-set* (Germ. ge-setzt); *y-done* (Germ. ge-than); *i-nome*, taken (Germ. ge-nommen).

g, in the combination eg and äg, is vocalized in i, which, with the preceding vowel, forms in Old English the diphthong is (N. Engl. ai), whilst in German the g is preserved; e.g. O. Engl. and M. Engl. feir or fæir, fair; neil or næil, nail (Germ. nagel); twein, twain; rein (Germ. regen); seil (Germ. segel); seile, said (Germ. sag-te); wei, way (Germ. weg),—A.S. fage,

nägel, twegen, regen, segel, segede, wega.

g and w maintain in Anglo-Saxon already a kind of relationship, by which the spirant w sometimes takes the place of the guttural media. This occurs in certain verbal forms, as A.S. sægon, sáwon, gesegen, gesewen, gesén (see, saw, seen, &c.); O. England M. Engl. drage, drawe, dragen, drawen (drag and draw); O. Engl. slogen, slowen, i-slagen, i-slawen (slay, slew, slain);

M. Engl. slog, slow, slew.

The Anglo-Saxon final g is rarely preserved, but commonly vocalized in i, and thus, with the preceding vowel, again forms the diphthong ei or æi (N. Engl. ay), e. g. O. Engl. dæi, day; mæi, may; heie, hay, — A. S. däg, hég, mäg, Germ. tag, mag. The g is dropped in O. Engl. bodi, mani, gredi, greedy; A S. bodig, manig, grædig. The Anglo-Saxon combination ig is turned in Old English into ewe, and vocalized in the New English ow, as, A. S. sorg (Germ. sorge), O. Engl. sorewe, N. Engl. sorrow; A. S. gealga (Germ. galgen), M. Engl. galwe, N. Engl. gallows; A. S. mearg, M. Engl. mereg, merew, N. Engl marrow.

The Romance q has the sound of the guttural media before

dark, that of the soft palatal before thin vowels.

ch does not exist in Anglo-Saxon, but has been introduced into late Anglo-Saxon and Old English from the French, where it undoubtedly had, as it still has, the sound of the English sibilant sh.

The gemination of the tenuis is frequent in Old English and Middle English, and continues to be marked ck. gg exists in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The transition sound is marked by 3 which may have had the sound of the English spirant y, as in 'year,' and thus partook of the nature of a semi-vowel.

talways becomes ch, as schin, splendour; schrift, writ; leachin, to quench. These three different kinds of ch are preserved in New High German, whilst all others with few exceptions are replaced again by the tenuis k. As we have mentioned before, even in Middle High German the aspirate ch does not occur at the beginning of a word. In Middle High German ch has occasionally its origin in the conflux of two syllables, as siecheit = siech-heit, sickness; juncherre = junc-herre, a young nobleman, a junker. Where thus c and k flow together New High German puts k instead, as in junker. Where ch occurs before the termination t of the verb, it does not, like the N. H. Germ. cht, supplant ht, but is owing to contraction, as bricht = brichet; N. H. Germ. cht is always M. H. Germ. ht. The geminations kk (ck) and gg are frequent. (Concerning the combinations hs and ht, see sub lit. h.)

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n has superseded m in the words count, Lat. comes; noun, Lat. nomen. The intrusion of p in the place of m is peculiar in words

such as Peg=Meg, Margaret; Polly=Molly, Mary.

n is never again restored in the words where Anglo-Saxon had dropped it, hence we have Engl. goose, tooth, other, could, mouth, us, for Germ. gans, zahn, ander, konnte, mund, uns. After the Anglo-Saxon period it has been dropped, together with the terminations; e.g. after, before, hence, out, whence, thence, -A. S. äftan, foran, hinan, ütan, hwanan, panan; while it is preserved in Germ. vorn, hinnen, außen, wannen, dannen. In derivations: waste, A. S. westen; game, A. S. gamen; eve, A. S. æfen-while even preserves the old form. In compounds: eleven, A. S. endlif; Thursday, A. S. punresdag; Oxford, O. Engl. Oxenford, A. S. Oxnaford; Sunday, O. Engl. Sonenday, A. S. Sunandag. inorganic in Ned for Ed-ward, Nancy, Nanny, for An-na; messenger, Fr. messager; passenger, Fr. passager. n is superseded by m in some words, especially where it precedes p or f, e.g. hemp, A. S. hanep, Germ. hanf; tempt, Fr. tenter; comfort, O. Fr. confort; Cambridge, A. S. Canta-brycge. n is mute where it follows upon m, as hymn, solemn, autumn.

r, with few exceptions, retains the place which it occupied in Anglo-Saxon. It is dropped in to speak, A. S. sprecan, Germ. sprechen; it is inorganically introduced in groom, bride-groom, A. S. guma, man. Metathesis of the r as in Old English and

Middle English.

Dutch. Prosthetic n, i. e. an inorganic n placed before the initial vowel, occurs in narst = arst, erst, first; narm = arm. (Compare Engl. Ned, Nanny, and the dialectic naunt = aunt.) We have metathesis of r in borst=brost, breast; born=bron, well, fountain: comp. Germ. born and brunnen. Interchange of r and s: bés and bér, berry; més and mér, parus. The Dutch language shows a predilection for the combination mp which occurs in very many words. Whenever a terminational m of the root is followed by the diminutive particle je, a p is interpolated, and thus the favourite combination obtained, e.g. bloem, bloom, blossom, flower, bloempje; worm, wormpje: but if the root ends in l or n, a t is preferred as an intermediate letter between the root and the particle, as vogel, bird, vogeltje; stén, stone, sténtje.

Swedish. Initial l, n, r, represent the same consonants of Old Norse, as well as the combinations hl, hn, hr, of the latter dialect. Old Norse vl is represented by simple l; hv and vr retain their position. Initial as well as terminational n remains excluded from words where Old Norse had dropped it. r and s remain in the same relation in which we found them in Old

Norse, therefore r in ber, berry; hare, hare; vara, to be; var, our; s in oss, us. gn is nasal, as ragn (rain) = rangn; vagn (waggon) = vangn. Alternation between ld and ll is to be noticed in guld, gold; gyllen, golden; ll for lt in kall, cold (Germ. kalt); halls, to hold (Germ. halten). In the same manner occurs nn for nd, nn for nn, nm for nb: thus lam, kam = lamm, kamm = lamb, lamb, lamb, comb. mn stands for O. N. fn: hamn = hafn, harbour (Germ. hafen).

Danish. Old Norse ll, nn, become ld, nd; hence galde, gall; stald, stall; kalde, call; ilde, ill; fuld, full; skind, skin; kind, kin; rinde, to rin: but we find the O. N. ll preserved in al, alle, ormis; stille, to still; nenne, to dare; and ll for O. N. ld in heller, potius. As a rule the O. N. ld and nd remain in Danish too, as alder, age (Germ. alter); kold, cold (Germ. kalt); holde, to hold (Germ. halten); haand, hand; vinde, to find; while Swedish prefers the geminations ll and nn, rejecting the O. N. d even in words like falla, to fall; kalla, to hold; munn, mouth (Germ. mund). If Danish has on one hand lost many of the Old Norse geminations ll and nn, it found, on the other, new inorganic geminations, as mölla, to mould; domme, dumb; kammen, the comb; lammet, the lamb. O. N. mp remains. Dronning, queen, has arisen by assimilation of drottning (comp. O. H. Germ. truttin, lord).

#### SPIRANTS.

German. The spirant w in Old High German was vocalized if occurring between two vowels, and thus formed diphthongs such as au out of aw, eu out of ew; and then at a later stage of the language it re-assumed its place even after the diphthong, so that frawe became fraue, and fraue again frauwe. This w is preserved still in Middle High German, but modern German has dropped it altogether in the middle as well as at the end of words, hence frau, treu, blau; mél, méles, schnée, schnées. After l and r the labial media has taken the place of the spirant w, as farbe, colour; milbe; wittib, widow, and witwe; the w remains in loewe, lion, and moewe, gull.

s is inorganic in many words where  $\mathfrak{g}$  ought to be used. This is chiefly the case in the neuter pronouns dds and wds, and the neuter termination of all the adjectives, weißes, gutes, schönes, &c. (More about this s, see infra, sub lit.  $\mathfrak{g}$ .) The Middle High German combinations sl, sm, sn, sw, turn the s into sch, as schlagen for slagen, schmecken for smeken, schnell for snel, schwach for swac; in the combinations sp and st, however, the s remains,

but only in writing, while the sound is identical with sch, as

stehen, sprechen, pronounced schtehen, schprechen.

j stands as an initial spirant since the most ancient times in words like ja, jār, jung, where it is replaced in English only in spelling, not in sound, by y: yes, year, yoke, young. The spirant j is inorganic in jë jetzt, for ie, iezt, which are dialectically still pronounced î, îzt, while ie has preserved its place in the negative nie=ne ie: cf. Engl. never=ne ever (ne=not). In the middle of a word it is no longer used, but commonly replaced by h, as gluehen, to glow; bluehen, to blossom; dréhen, to turn; sæhen (sæen), to sow, instead of M. H. Germ. gluejen, bluejen, dréjen, sæjen.

h has regained its ancient position in sah, geschah, instead of the M. H. Germ. sach, geschach. It is inorganically used for j in gluehen, bluehen, &c., as we have just seen; so also in rahe for rawe, and most frequently where it is introduced merely as the mark of the long vowel, as sehnen, dehnen, mahnen, for senen, denen, manen. Instead of the more ancient ht, hs, we find always cht, chs; e.g. macht, might; nacht, night; wachsen, to wax,

grow-M. H. Germ. maht, naht, wahsen.

English. Where the spirant w interchanged in Old English with the labial aspirate v, modern English has again established the former; therefore always to wake, was, wash, wood, never vake, vas, &c. It has become mute in who, whose, whom; is dropped in ooze (A.S. wős, sap); while in whole (A.S. hál) and its compounds, and in whoop it is an inorganic addition. The German spirant w is rendered by the French g, gu, e.g. A.S. wile, O. Fr. guile; A.S. weard, O. Fr. guard; and the words having been re-imported from France, it so happens that in modern English we have both the Saxon and French forms of the same word side by side, e.g. Saxon warrant, warrantee, French guarantee; Saxon ward, French guard; Saxon re-ward, French guerd-on; Saxon wise, French guise; Saxon wile, wily, French guile.

Terminational w is always mute after dark vowels: to sow, to mow, saw; it is vocalized in hew (pronounced=hu), O. Engl. hewe, A. S. hedwe; dropped in four, soul, wheel, aught, naught; at the end in tree, knee, and vocalized in grew, blew, knew. The combination wr remains, but the w is mute: wrath, wreak, wrestle. The combination hw becomes wh, but in pronunciation it is still

like the ancient hw, as where, when, why = hwere, &c.

j. This spirant is replaced in modern English by y: yes, year, yoke, young. The present English j is imported from France, and is therefore chiefly found in words of French derivation, as jay, joy, just, jest, jaw—but it has found its way into German

words too, replacing the media g, as jump; jabber, by the side of gabble. In the same manner we still have j and g, side by side, jail and gaol, Lat. caveola, gabiola, O. Fr. gaiole, juiole; jennet and genet. Lat. genisla. Fr. genet: jill and gill, jingle and gingle.

and gennet, Lat. genista, Fr. genet; jill and gill, jingle and gingle.

s. The Old English r for s is preserved only in forlorn, everywhere else the s is replaced: chose, chosen, lose, lost, froze, frozes. The s is preserved by the succeeding t in durst. It often cedes its place to c, as mouse, mice, A. S. mús, mýs; pence, O. Engl. pens; ice, A. S. ús; twice, M. Engl. twies; so also thrice, whence, thence, since, M. Engl. sithens, A. S. siððan. The Anglo-Saxon combination sc is commonly rendered by sh: shame, sharp, sheep, shot, shut, shrub; sc however is preserved in scale, scrape, scurf, score, screech. st is preserved throughout. Metathesis of s still occurs in dialects: claps for clasp, aps for asp, ax for ask.

The French s became much modified in English. It has been replaced by c in peace, O. Fr. pais; palace, O. Fr. paleis; by sh in finish, Fr. finiss-ons of finir; and in the same manner most French verbs in ir with the characteristic ss. s has been dropped both in Saxon and French words: cherry, O. Fr. cherice; riddle, A.S. rædelse; alms (now used as a plural), A. S. ælmesse; riches, O. Fr. richesse; noisome for noise-som; exile, Lat. exsul. This spirant has been added inorganically in smelt from melt, squash from quash; scratch, Germ. kratzen; sneeze, Germ. niesen; and in island, A. S. ealand, Fr. isle; aisle, Fr. aile.

We distinguish in English a surd and a soft s sound, the former indicated by s, the latter by z, a distinction we met in the Gothic already. Surd or hard s is commonly used at the beginning of words, after short vowels, after liquids, and after gemination or doubled consonants; the soft s we usually pronounce between two vowels, after vowels and soft consonants,

the inflexional s, and s as a termination before e mute.

A. This letter had in Anglo-Saxon already to represent both the spirant and aspirated guttural. The initial A has, after many fluctuations in Old English and Middle English, resumed its position in New English; but the Anglo-Saxon hit remains in New English as in Old English it. Before the consonants l, n, r, the A is never replaced, and hence we write as in Old English, loaf, lade, loud, ring, neck—A. S. hláf, &c. hw is inverted into wh: who, while—A. S. hwa, hwät, hwîle; but the ancient sound remains in what, while, &c. h is dropped in the middle and at the end of words: wheel, slay, see, tear; roe, foe, doe, fee, shoe, for A. S. hweohol, sleahan, &c., and ráh, fáh, &c. This letter is preserved and strengthened into gh, but the combination

is mute, as in high, nigh, though, thigh—A S. heah, neah, &c.; and knight, sight, light, wight, night-A.S. cniht, siht, &c. So also with the h which has its origin in c or g, as right, A. S. riht, from  $\cdot$ recian; sought, A.S. sohte, from sécan; might, A.S. meakt, from . mäg; bought, A.S. bohte, from bycgan. This gh makes everywhere the preceding vowel long, even in French words. spright, Fr. esprit; but in delight, and the obsolete extraught, distraught, it more probably renders the Latin c in delicium, extractum, distractum. In a few instances the h is strengthened into gh, and the combination pronounced = f, e.g. draught and draft, A. S. droht, O. Engl. draht; enough (rarely enow), A. S. genoh, O. Engl. inoh; to laugh, A. S. hleahhan, O. Engl. lahhgen; tough, A. S. toh, O. E. toge. The initial h in Romance words which Old English and Middle English had often dropped, as in onour, omage, is replaced in New English, but it remains mute, as in honour, homage, Lat. honor, homagium. In the word inveigh, Lat. invehere, the h follows the Saxon course, while in convey, Lat. convehere, it is dropped after the French fashion.

Dutch. As to the spirant w we have only to observe that it preserved its position where New High German has rejected it, i.e. after the diphthongs which have been formed by the vocalization of the ancient w. Hence, where we read in New High German fran, banen, Dutch continues the forms vrouw, woman; bonwen, to build; konw, cold; laanw, lukewarm (Germ. lau);

paauw, peacock (Germ. pfau).

j corresponds to the same spirant in German and the semivowel y in English, e. g. ja, jaar, jong, Germ. ja, jahr, jung, Engl.

yes, year, young.

The Dutch language has, like the English, two letters for the s sound, i. c. s indicating the hard, z the soft sibilant, of which the latter never occurs at the end of a word or syllable, but commonly finds its place in the middle and at the beginning before vowels, while the former is commonly used at the end of words and at the beginning before most consonants, e. g. zon, soft; zoeken, to seek; zouten, to salt; zalf, ointment (Germ. salbe); zwaard, sword; slim, bad (Germ. schlimm); snel, quick (Germ. schnell); sprong, leap (Germ. sprung); stelen, to steal; spreken, to speak (Germ. sprechen); slaen, to slay; ons, us (Germ. uns); was, was; is, is. The combinations sl, sn, &c., are never changed as in German into schl, schn, nor do st and sp ever adopt the broad pronunciation as in the German stecken, sprechen.

h, which in Middle Dutch was subject to many irregular influences, resumes again its organic position, chiefly at the be-

ginning of words. Remarkable, however, is the fact of this pirant being supplanted, in some words, by the media d, e.g. mader, nearer (Germ. näher); vlieden, to flee (Germ. fliehen); seckieden, to happen (Germ. geschehen)—forms which are used in the place of the more common rlien, geschien.

Swedish. The spirant s remains on the whole as in Old Norse. It is of frequent occurrence in derivative forms of nouns and verbs, as gumse, ram; rensa, to rinse; gramsa, rapere, by contraction of gumise, &c.; but especially in adjectives, e.g. armse,

engry; énse, concors; sorgse, anxious.

The spirant j is a very favourite letter in Swedish. Its relation to the gutturals will be examined later on: it is organic in yes; jāga, to hunt (Germ. jagen); and in the combinations je, jo, jū, jū, ju, where it is, of course, consonantal, like the erman j and the English semi-vowel y in yes, year, &c. The mbination sj sounds like the English sh, as sjette, sjū, sjael, = tte, &c.

k occurs only at the beginning of words, and is pronounced as the other Teutonic dialects; but before j and v it is mute,

nce hvéte, wheat; hjerta, heart, = véte, jerta.

Danish. The spirants of this dialect are identical with those the Swedish. As peculiar to Danish we may mention the equent omission of the initial j, as aar, year, for jaar. j comonly represents the Old Norse i, in the combinations io, ia, iö, c., as björn, bear; kjoel, keel. Where a guttural precedes a hin vowel, j is interpolated between them, probably in order to adicate a softer pronunciation of the guttural, e.g. kjende, kjoebe, jest for kende, &c.

A never occurs at the beginning or the end of words.

## MUTES.

### 1. Labials.

German. Though there are two different letters to denote the aspirated labial, yet both f and v now express one and the same sound. The former is used at the beginning of a word before u, ei, eu, l, r, and in foreign words; in all other cases v stands as the initial labial, e. g. futter, fodder; fein, fine; feuer, fire; fluckt, flight; freund, friend: but viel, much; voll, full; vogel, bird; vater, father; vor, fore; and the prefix ver. In many cases, however, the original v has been supplanted by f: folgen, to follow; fangen, to catch; befellen, to command; always in the middle of a word, hence grafen, earls; zweifel,

doubts;  $v\"{o}lfe$ , wolves; which words in Middle High German always had v: frevel, crime, alone preserves the v in the middle of a word.

English. In a few cases the media takes the place of the tenuis, as lobster, A.S. loppestre; slab, A.S. slapp. The tenuis p is interpolated occasionally between m and t, or m and s, e.g. empty, O. Engl. emti; glimpse, A.S. gleam; in other cases again New English omits this p where Old English had interpolated it, as O. Engl. sempster, A.S. seamestre, N. Engl. seamster; O. Engl. solempne, N. Engl. solemn.

The media b is still written in English, though not pronounced, at the end of words after m, where other modern Teutonic dialects have dropped it altogether, e. g. lamb, dumb, womb, climb—words in which Old English too used to drop the b. English also restores the b, though it leaves it mute again, in Latin words which had lost the media in French, as debt, Fr. dette, Lat. debita; doubt, Fr. douter, Lat. dubitare. In the words slumber, A.S. slumerian; limb, A.S. lim; thumb, A.S. púma; crumb, A.S. cruma; humble, Lat. humilis; number, Lat. numerus, the media has been interpolated. A peculiar and isolated case is the transition of the media b into m in the word summerset, Fr. soubresaut.

The aspirated labial is represented by two letters, f and v; the former of which denotes the hard, the latter the soft aspirate. Initial f of Anglo-Saxon words is always restored in New English where Old English used occasionally to replace it by v; while at the end and in the middle of words the soft aspirate gains the better over its harder twin, hence five, A. S. fif; silver, A. S. seolfor; devil, A. S. deofol; give, A. S. gifan; even, A. S. ëfen; raven, A. S. hräfen. The transition already observed in Old English, of the final f into v when it recedes into the middle of a word is continued in New English, as wife, wives; calf, calves—a transition which must have arisen first at a time when the plurals where still pronounced as bi-syllables, calvés, &c. The f is dropped in head, woman, A. S. heafod, wifman (see Old English).

ph, which properly belongs to foreign words only, is partly preserved in New English, partly replaced by f, as fancy, fantom, frenzy, and phenomenon, phrase, pheasant. In the word nephew, the ph stands for the f of the A.S. nefa, O.Fr. and O.Engl. nenew.

The use of the soft aspirate v in words of Saxon derivation we have already mentioned; far more extensively, however, it is found in words of Latin origin, examples of which will occur to any one. We have only to point out a few extra-

ordinary modifications and changes of the soft aspirates, as for example the transition of v into w in the word periwinkle, Fr. pervenche, Lat. perivinca; of v into m, malmsey, O. Engl. malvesie, Fr. malvoisie: in the word sennight = seven-night, elision of the v and contraction has taken place.

Dutch. Like English the Dutch language very often softens the more ancient hard aspirate f into the softer v, in which case it corresponds to the German media b, e. g. léven, to live (Germ. lêben); géven, to give (Germ, gêben); nével, mist (Germ. nêbel); séven, seven (Germ. sieben). Peculiar to Dutch is the conversion of ft into cht, as kracht for Engl. craft, Germ. kraft; achter, Engl. after; fluctuating between ft and cht is schaft and schacht, Engl. shaft, Germ. schacht.

Gemination of the labials, as pp, bb, ff, is very frequent in Dutch. In the word effen the ff is inorganic for v: Engl. even, Germ. eben; neffens, juxta, Germ. neben.

Swedish. The labials hold very much the same positions as in Old Norse. The terminational f, when followed by a vowel, becomes fv, which indicates a softer sound of the aspirate, as hafva, to have; lefva, to live; the same modification takes place between liquids and vowels, e.g. sperf, sparrow (Germ. sperber), sperfven; ulf, wolf; ulfven, wolves. This fv answers in sound to the English v, and perhaps the O. S. b (bh) and O. H. Germ. v.

Organic geminations of the labials are frequent. ff occasionally stands inorganically in words imported from German: träffa, to hit (Germ. treffen); straffa, to punish (Germ. strafen); skaffa, curare (Germ. schaffen); but the same words occur in their Scandinavian form and with a different meaning: dräpa, to strike; skapa, to create. The old aspirate v is still preserved before r in the words vrak, wreck, ejecta maris; vraka, to cast out, ejicere; vrång, wrong.

ft stands for O. N. pt; mn for O. N. fn.

Danish. This dialect, like Swedish, preserves the labials on the whole in their ancient position. But quite peculiar to Danish is the introduction after vowels of the media for the tenuis, which we have already mentioned. Thus skib, gribe, for the Sw. skép, gripa, Engl. ship, gripe. Exceptional is the gemination pp in skipper (Engl. skipper and shipper).

The aspirate f, after vowels and the liquids l and r, is changed into v, e.g. kdv, pelagus (Germ. hafen); give, gav, for O. N.  $g\ddot{e}fa$ , gaf, Sw. gifva, gaf;  $s\ddot{o}lv$ , silver. The f remains only in the combination ft. The soft aspirate v is a favourite sound of the soft Danish language, and occurs in all different positions. It is in pronunciation neither exactly like the English v nor the

German w, but somewhat between the two, so that it might as well be mentioned under the head of spirants, by which it is indeed rendered in the cognate dialects; as, vaaben, weapons (Germ. waffen); vand, water (Germ. wasser). It is inorganic for the media g in l d v, low; m d v e, stomach (Germ. magen); vocalized in plou = plov = plog (Germ. pflug), hau = have = hage, where the g occasionally reappears. as in ploug, h d u g.

The gemination of labials is frequent.

### 2. Dentals.

German, th, which had disappeared in Middle High German, reappears again in New German, but it is, wherever it is used, inorganic and objectionable, because it is both in sound and derivation nothing else but the Old High German tenuis, corresponding to the media in English and Low German generally. Examples: -thal, dale, valley; thun, to do; than, dew; theil, deal; noth, need; muth, mood, courage; roth, red. The h after the tenuis has probably been introduced in order to mark out and preserve the length of the radical vowel; but if this is the case, it has been put in the wrong position, and it would have been more to the purpose to have written tahl, tuhn, &c. This misapplication of the k was in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries far more frequent than it is now. Modern writers discard it altogether in flit, flood; brit, breed; but very inconsistently keep it up in roth and muth; those only who follow the teachings of historical grammar reject it in all cases where it is used merely for the sake of indicating a long vowel. Perfectly absurd is the attempt to distinguish certain homophonous words of different meaning by the introduction of the letter h, as hut, hat, and huth, pascuum; ton, sound, and thon, clay; while we are obliged to look for some other criterion than that of spelling, if we wish to know, whether in a given case the word thor is used to indicate a gate or a fool.

The relation between tenuis and media continues, as it was in Middle High German already, rather complicated, nay, it becomes more so by the interchange of d and tt, as in schneiden, to cut, pret. schnitt; sieden, to seethe, boil, pret. sott; but meiden, to shun, a verb of the same conjugational class, forms the pret. mied. The preterite termination of the weak conjugation is in New German always te instead of de. In the word des-to the tenuis instead of the media in the second syllable is

kept up by the preceding s.

z occurs, as in Old High German and Middle High German,

a hard and as a soft sibilant; but while the former has preserved its ancient pronunciation of ts, the latter, instead of preverying the sound ds, has been flattened into s, and is written f. The German z then corresponds to Middle High German z, and Gennan & to Middle High German z. Examples:—fuß, foot; groß, great;  $da\beta$ , that;  $d\beta$ , ate;  $i\beta$ , eat, imper.;  $la\beta$ , let, imper. language of long and short vowels in the same word, as Fig., to eat,  $\hat{a}\hat{g}$ , ate; megen, to measure,  $m\hat{a}\hat{g}$ , is as inconsistent s the change of f into the gemination ss in essen, messen. It is an arbitrary rule that f, when succeeding a long vowel, is allowed to stand at the end or in the middle of a word, but that it must be changed into se in the middle of the word after a short Twel. The old grammarians therefore write fuß, plur. füße, but faß, barrel, plur. füsser; essen, pret. aß; messen, pret. maß; Mays wasser, not waser. As to pronunciation, this letter is Perfectly identical with s, and might therefore be rendered by e latter, since fus and gros would sound like fuß and groß. is change has actually been effected where the Middle High erman z was the termination of the neuter adjective or proun, as és, it; dás, that; wás, what; gûtes, bonum; M.H. erm ez, daz, waz, guotez. An absurd mode of spelling has en invented for the distinction of the pronoun and conjuncon, the former being spelled das, the latter daß; though both ere originally one and the same word and should therefore be iformly spelled, just as well as that, their English equivalent, oth as a pronoun and as a conjunction.

Historical grammar teaches us to use \$\beta\$ in all cases where Midle High German applied the organic \$\beta\$, and this rule is now requently obeyed by German authors even in works which have of direct bearing upon grammar and which are written for the public at large. It will therefore be well to lay down the rule so is to render it intelligible to those who are not versed in Middle High German. It may be stated as a safe guide in most cases, that in words where the German s sound is rendered in English or Dutch by \$t\$, High German should write \$\beta\$, e.g. wa\beta\_{er}\$, not wasser, because of the Dutch and Engl. water; la\beta\_{en}\$, not lassen, Engl. to let, Dutch laten; ha\beta\_{en}\$, not hassen, Engl. to

hate, Dutch haten.

zw represents three ancient combinations, i. e. dw, tw, and zw, which are organically quite distinct; e. g. zwerg, zwerch, zwei.

English. The tenuis t, when initial, remains as in Old English and Anglo-Saxon. It is changed into the media in proud, O. Engl. prout, A. S. prút; diamond, Fr. diamant; and into the aspirate th in Thames (but pronounced t), A. S. Temese; author,

Lat. autor. We have s instead of t in the words must, mos-te=mot-te=mot-de, debui; wist, A.S. wis-te=wit-te (comp. A.S. sub lit. s); glisten, A.S. glisian=glitian. t is often mute when it occurs between two consonants, as Christ-mas, chest-nut, castle, mistletoe. It is dropped in the words best, A.S. betest, best; Essex, O. Engl. Est-sex; Wessex, O. Engl. West-sex; dandelion, Fr. dent-de-lion. A t is added after s, especially after the s of the genitive, and in the particles amids-t, amongs-t, whils-t, agains-t, &c.; and in the words behest, A.S. behæs; thwart, A.S. bweorh; tyrant, Lat. tyrannus; ancient, O. Fr. ancien; parch-

ment, O. Fr. parchemin.

The media d on the whole occupies the same position as in Anglo-Saxon. It is changed into t in the words abbot, A.S. abbad; partrige, Fr. perdrix (a change more frequent in various dialects). The media d and the soft aspirate &, which in Anglo-Saxon are often fluctuating, in New English finally settle into th, as whether, together, father, mother, A.S. hwäder, togädere fäder, mödor. d is dropped in gospel, A.S. god-spell; to answer. A.S. and-swärian; wood-bine, A.S. vudu-bind (dialectically everyine, mine, for find, mind). The media is interpolated in gande A.S. gandra, masc. of gôs; alder, A.S. alor; gender, Lat. genus jaundice, Fr. jaunisse. In the termination ed of the weak conjugation the d, when following upon p, f, k, ch, &c., has the pronunciation of the tenuis, as plucked, whipped, marked = pluc whipt, markt,—a pronunciation with which the spelling former harmonized.

th. In Anglo-Saxon the soft th or & is occasionally replaced by the media d, or both are used indiscriminately in certain words. This wavering between the two sounds ceases, however, in Old English already which adopts either one or the other, e.g. A.S. hræð and hræd, O. Engl. redie and rather, N. Engl. ready and rather; A.S. mäge's and mägden, O. Engl. mayde, N. Engl. maid; A.S. Wa and Vid, N. Engl. lithe; but A. S. burden and burden, N. Engl. burthen and burden. The media has been adopted for the aspirate in murderer, A. S. myrora; could, A.S. cube, O. Engl. coupe, M. Engl. cude; fiddle, A. S. fibele; deck and thatch, A. S. beccan, to cover. For O. Engl. quod, N. Engl. reassumes the aspirate, and writes quoth, A. S. cwad. The aspirate is replaced by the tenuis, chiefly after the consonants f, h, s, r, as theft, A. S. peof'S; height, A. S. heah'So; dart, A. S. daras. th is dropped in Norwich for North-wich, A. S. Norowic; Norman for North-man, A.S. Nordman; worship for worthship, A.S. weor Sscipe.

z is not an Anglo-Saxon letter, but in Old English, where it

was chiefly imported with French words, it is rather frequent. It is very peculiar that in Old English this letter occasionally replaces s(x; 3), as dozter for dogter, zeres for geres; but from this position it soon disappears again, and the letter is limited to foreign words. In New English it continues to occupy its place in fungin words, and frequently encroaches upon the range of the chilants s and c, as to freeze, A. S. freesan; hazel, A. S. häsel; hund, Fr. hasard; to seize, Fr. saisir; lizard, Lat. lacerta. Very tange is the word ginger for Lat. zinziber, the inversion of the ce of Old English which places the z for the g in dozter = dogter. and z we have side by side in glass and glaze, gloss and gloze.

Dutch. The media is terminational again, hence the preterite of the weak verbs ends in d instead of the Middle Dutch t. The 4 in thans is caused by the contraction of te-huns, at hand (Germ. zur hand). The use of the media d in the place of h peculiar, as nader, nearer (Germ. näher); vlieden, to flee (Germ. dichen), geschieden, to happen (Germ. geschehen), used instead Of the more common vlien, geschien. Dutch has a great facility slipping over the media d and its succeeding e, thus forming  $\rightarrow$  contraction and lengthening the vowel of the root, e.g. var =reader, father; dr = ader, vein (Germ. ader);  $b\hat{o} = bode$ , messenger, (Germ. bote); blan = bladen, foliis; gon = goden, diis; woen = **expecten**, to rage (Germ. withen); bien = bieden, to offer (Germ. bieten); nêr=neder, nether (Germ. nieder). The Dutch way of writing these contractions is, vaar, neer, goon, &c. Just the prosite course is followed in the case of l, n, r being succeeded by er, where always a d slips in between them; as minder, minor (Germ. minder); mêrder, more (Germ. mehr); kleinder, smaller (Germ. kleiner); helder, lighter (Germ. heller); schönder, prettier (Germ. schöner). (As to the relation between z and s, see sub lit. 8.)

Swedish. The Old Norse aspirate disappears; where it was initial it is replaced by the tenuis, as tunga, tongue; tung, heavy; hence the Swedish t stands for German d (or z), and English th, e. g. Sw. ting, Germ. ding, Engl. thing; tistel, Germ. distel, Engl. thistle. The tenuis and media retain the same position as in Old Norse. The gemination tt is very frequent in Swedish; it stands (1)=0. N. tt, as in skatt (treasure), hatt; (2)=0. N. ht in natt (night); (3)=0. N. nt in mitt (meum), ditt (tuum), sitt (suum). The combination dt is of frequent occurrence as the neuter termination of the adjectives in d.

Danish. In this dialect also the aspirate gives way, sometimes to the tenuis, sometimes to the media (as in the pronouns den, de, der, &c.), whence a great confusion prevails in this class

of mutes. When d is terminational, and follows upon a vowel, it is almost pronounced like the soft English th (O. N. dh), so that in ved, with, it sounds veth. In the middle of a word it is hardly heard at all, and the word manden, therefore, almost sounds mannen. The media is, as in Dutch, often dropped between vowels, e. g. fder, moer, broer, lear, vejr, for fdder, father; moder, mother; broder, brother; leather; veder, weather. The geminations dd and tt are of frequent occurrence.

## 3. Gutturals.

German. The guttural tenuis is represented by k and ck, and in foreign words by c. The media may occur at the end of a word where in Middle High German it was always replaced by the tenuis. ch represents different ancient letters; it stands (I) for the spirant h: doch, yet; hoch, high; noch, still; nacht, night; wachsen, to wax, to grow; but the spirant is replaced in the preterite of the strong verbs: sah, vidi; geschah, accidit; fhoh, fugi, instead of Middle High German sach, geschah, &c.; (2)=Gothic k, where we still use k in English, e. g. schwach, weak; machen, to make; wachen, to wake; brechen, to break; eiche, oak; siech, sick.

The Gothic sk is always rendered in German by sch, Engl. sh, e.g. Goth. skadus, Germ. schatten, Engl. shade; Goth. skaban, Germ. schaben, Engl. to shave; Goth. skillus, Germ. schild, Engl. shield; Goth. skilliggs, Germ. schilling, Engl. shilling; Goth. skohs, Germ. schilh, Engl. shoe. ch had in Old High German and Middle High German a much wider range than it has in New High German, for, with the exception of the different cases just mentioned, it is now commonly replaced by the tenuis k, e.g. M. H. Germ. dechen, N. H. Germ. decken, to deck, cover; M. H. Germ. chindiske, N. H. Germ. kindisch, childish; M. H. Germ. chirche, N. H. Germ. kirche, church.

ald; chicken, A. S. cicen. (See Old English and Middle

**Ing**lish.)

Before the Anglo-Saxon y, which is the Umlaut of u, one would expect to see the k sound preserved, but it yields even here sometimes to ch, e.g. kin, A. S. cyn; king, A. S. cyning; kicken, A. S. cycene; church (Scotch kirke), A. S. cyrice. Where in Anglo-Saxon a c precedes ea, eo, eá, Old English already decided in favour of ch, which in New English has been kept up, e.g. chalk, A. S. cealc; chester, A. S. ceaster; churl, A. S. ceorl; chapman (still in vogue as approper name, meaning 'merchant,' Germ. kaufmann), A. S. ceápman; except care, A. S. cearu; keel,

A. S. ceol. A. S. cw is N. Engl. qu.

In the middle of words c is replaced either by k or ch, as acre, A.S. äcer; fickle, A.S. ficol; wreak, A.S. wrecan; sink, A.S. sincan; to seek and beseech, A. S. secan; to teach, A. S. tacan; to reach, A. S. racan. The k sound is commonly preserved at the end of words: ark, rank, clerk, folk, A.S. arc, ranc, clerc, folc. e is dropped in the 1st sing. of the personal pronoun: A.S. ic, N. Engl. I, Germ. ich, Dutch ik, and in the suffix lic, N. Engl. ly, Germ. lich. It appears that in late Anglo-Saxon already the e before thin vowels, as e and i, assumed the sound of the sibilant s, and hence the interchange between c, s, and z, which we have already dwelt upon (see sub lit. 8). The Romance c takes in English a somewhat different course from that in French. (1) It preserves its k sound as in French before dark vowels and before l and r, e.g. captain, court, cousin, cross, clear. (2) It has the k sound in English, though it is sibilant in French, e.g. carpenter, Fr. charpentier; carrion, O. Fr. charoigne, Lat. caro; kennel, Fr. chenil, Lat. canile. Or (3) the French sibilant is introduced in English too, e.g. chapel, Lat. capella; chair, Lat. cathedra; to challenge, O. Fr. chalonge, Lat. calumniari; chamber, Lat. camera. Or (4) we have both sounds side by side, as candle and chandler, A. S. candel, Lat. candela; carnal and charnel-house, from Lat. caro; cattle and chattel, O. Fr. catel, chatel, Lat. capitalis.

The Romance c before e and i (y) either remains and is sibilant as in French city, cignet, or it is replaced by s, succory, Lat. cichorium; search, O. Fr. cercher; or it is thickened into ch, sh, cherry, Fr. cerise; shingle, O. Fr. cengle, Lat. cingulum. It takes the same course in the middle of a word. At the end, however, it has the k sound when it is terminational, and the s sound when it is followed by e mute, e.g. public, lilac; pumice, chalice. Before a t it is converted into h, as delight, Lat. delec-

tari; straight, Lat. strictus.

The media q commonly remains unaltered where it is initial; but in the words quest and ghost (A.S. gäst, gäst) the g is unnecessarily sheltered against sibilation by the addition of a and  $\lambda$ . The vocalization of g takes place on a very large scale in We have remnants of this vocalization still pre-Old English. served in hand-i-work (A. S. hand-ge-weorc), hand-i-craft, hand-ystroke. Initial g is dropped in if, A. S. gif; icicle, A. S. is-gicel. g, if in the middle of a word it occurred in the combinations g,  $\ddot{a}g$ , has been vocalized into i, and thus forms a diphthong, N.Engl. ai (O. Engl. and M. Engl. ei), as fair, hail, maiden, nail, sail, &c., A.S. fäger, hägel, mägden, nägel, segel. In the combination orchard, A. S. ort-geard, fruit-garden, the media g is converted into the hard palatal ch. Anglo-Saxon already allows of a transition of the media g into the spirant w, chiefly in verbal forms which in New English are still preserved, as A.S. sagon, we see; sawon, we saw; gesegen, gesewen, gesen, seen; so also are to be explained, to drag and to draw, dragged and drew, dragged and drawn; slew and slain: further, the words law, A.S. lag; to gnaw, A.S. gnagan; to dawn, A.S. dagian, from dag, day; fowl, A. S. fugol; morrow, A. S. morgen. Compare Germ. nagen, tagen, vogel, morgen.

g when terminational is rarely preserved, as in twig, egg, A. S. twig, äg; but it is commonly vocalized into i (y), forming with the radical vowel the diphthong ey or ay, e. g. grey and gray, hay, may, lay, day, A. S. græg, hég, mäg, läg, däg. It is dropped in the suffix ig, N. Engl. y, as holy, Germ. heilig; body, A. S. bodig; many, A. S. manig; greedy, A. S. grædig (O. Engl. and M. Engl. i). The A. S. ig is in Old English converted into w, ewe, N. Engl. ow, in the words sallow, sorrow, marrow, gallows, A. S. salig, sorg, mearg, gealg. g is mute and the preceding vowel long in foreign, Lat. forensis; feign, Fr. feindre; sovereign, Fr. souverain.

In Anglo-Saxon the media g is sometimes replaced by j, and later on is altogether converted into the spirant y. In New English it occurs both with the sound of the guttural media and that of the spirant, or rather the soft palatal, in Saxon words, as well as in such of Latin origin. We have the media in garden, get, go, give, geese, of Saxon origin; and in gain, gust, guttural, glory, grace, of French derivation; the soft palatal in the Saxon singe, cringe, angel, and in the French gem, giant, elegy, deluge, refuge, and always before e and i. Even the Teutonic gemination gg is rendered by dg, as edge, bridge, hedge, instead of egge, &c. It must have been at a comparatively recent period of the language that the German element was infected with the French

**pronunciation**, since terminational g is commonly doubled at the end; and this doubling or gemination of the media preserves it from being converted into the palatal. The French sound of sibilant g is a soft sh, and thus we find in Middle English too oblishen instead of oblidge. The transition is supposed to have taken place towards the end of the fourteenth century 1.

g is mute before n: gnash, gnarl, gnaw, foreign, sign, impugn, poignant. The letter u is sometimes added to g in order to indicate the sound of the guttural media, first of all in French words, e.g. guide, guise, guile—then, though unnecessarily, in Saxon words, e.g. guest, guild, while we use the simple g in get, In the words distinguish, Lat. distinguere; extinguish, Lat. **extinguere**; anguish, Lat. anguus, we pronounce g and u distinctly,

**Decause** the u is not euphonic but belongs to the root.

gh is in different words of different origin and sound. s the Italian way of writing the guttural media, identical to the French gu, e.g. Ghent, and even ghost. (2) It is derived from strengthened into k: hough, shough. (3) It is derived from the guttural, but the strengthened form has the sound of f, a circumstance which may originate in the fact of the w having  $\blacksquare$  cometimes taken the place of the guttural h and g (see sub lit.  $\mathbf{w}$ ), e.g. cough, trough, tough, laugh. (4) It is derived from the Saxon guttural h, but in this case gh is always mute, e. g. fight, right, might, night, A. S. riht, miht, niht, while Scotch, like German, still preserves the guttural: fecht, recht, mecht, Germ. nacht, macht.

ch. This letter was foreign to Anglo-Saxon and imported with French words. Later on it found its way into words of Teutonic origin. As to the development of this letter in Old English and Middle English, vide supra. It is now used as a palatal aspirate in many words of German and French origin, as child, chin, church, cheese, chester—and chamber, chapel, chief, chapter; choose is the A.S. ceosan; choice, the French choix. In some French words it preserves the French sibilant, as machine, moustache, charade, ch = k in Greek words: chaos, chemist, chord, chyle. It is mute in drachm and schism.

As to gemination we have only to remark that ck as the gemination of k continues to exist; the gemination of g is commonly dropped, but remains in egg; it becomes a soft palatal aspirate in sledge, edge, bridge, for slegge, &c.

**Dutch.** The distinction of M. Dutch ch and gh is lost, hence for M. Dutch dach, daghen, N. Dutch writes dag, dagen.

many cases the old ck is superseded by the media q, as magl, night; clugt, flight; where certainly the other mode of spelling machl, clucht, is preferable, as ck generally is a favourite letter before t. The M. Dutch cht for Germ. and Engl. fl remains in N. Dutch, as lucht, air (Germ. luft); cracht, strength, craft (Germ. kraft). The ch in zich (se) is inorganic for k: compare Goth. ik, mik, sik, Germ. ich, mich, sich, Dutch ik, mi, zich; from which we see that while all the German forms have their organic ch = Goth. k (see Grimm's Law), in Dutch the 1st person only has its organic k; in the 2nd person the k suffers apocope as the k in Engl. I, A. S. ic; and the 3rd person adopts inorganic ch for k. The combinations ch, qu, x, are now rendered by kk, kw, ks.

Peculiar to this dialect is the transition of the Swedish. guttural k into the sound of the palatal ck or j, similar to the course A. S. c (k) takes in English before all thin vowels and vowels preceded by j. As to the pronunciation grammarians differ, some preferring the sound of the English j, others that of ch (Rask), the latter undoubtedly being preferable, because it is more general among the natives and more agreeable to etymology. Thus, then, the words kek (maxilla), kil, wedge (Germ. keil); kyss, kiss; kaer, dear; koen, chin, are to be pronounced jek, jil, &c., or better, with Rask, chek, chil, &c. Before the dark vowels a, o, u, the guttural remains, and may therefore in one and the same word alternate with the palatal, as kam, comb (Germ. kamm); kämma = chämma, to comb (Germ. kämmen). But in the middle and at the end of words k retains its pure guttural sound. In some cases it is indeed replaced by the media, as jaq, ego; miq, me; diq, te; siq, se; instead of the organic kin O. N. jak, mik, dik, sik.

The sound of the media g is changed into the soft palatal j before the same vowels where the k must be changed into ch, e. g.  $g\ell t$  (goat)=jet;  $g\ddot{a}lla$  (to sound)= $j\ddot{a}lla$ , goek (cuckoo)=joek; but before the combinations je,  $j\ddot{a}$ , jo, ju, the media is not heard at all, and the words  $gj\ddot{a}rn$ , gjoerna, gjuta, sound like  $j\ddot{a}rn$ , joerna, juta. As k and ch, so also g and j—that is, guttural and palatal—may alternately be heard in different forms of the same word, as gifva (to give)=jiva, and gaf, gave; guld, gold, and gyllen=jyllen, golden. In the middle and at the end of words g retains the pure sound of the guttural media, except after l and r, where again it changes its pronunciation into j; and the neuter of adjectives in lig, where before t it is pronounced like k, as heligt = helikt.

ch occurs only in the particles ach and och, pronounced ack and och.

The geminations gg and kk (ck) are frequent. qv = kv. x = ks. The use of gt and kt is unsettled. The M. H. Germ. ht (A. S. ht. Engl. ght) should everywhere be rendered by tt. But by the side of natt, night (A. S. niht, M. H. Germ. naht, Germ. nacht); rett. right; lett, light, we read makt, might; right; right

weight.

Danish. The gutturals g and k have before thin vowels a softer pronunciation, approaching in fact the palatal modification of the Swedish guttural, which is indicated by a j interpolated between the guttural and the vowel, as kjende, kjoebe, gjest. (This j is to be kept distinct from the j answering to the O. N. i in io, ia, &c.: see sub lit. j.) Before hard vowels the full guttural sound is retained. In the middle and at the end of words the tenuis k makes place to the media g. We find organic g changed into v after vowels in liquids, e. g. voven for vogen, waggon (Germ. wagen); after soft vowels into j, e. g. lejr, camp (Germ. lager); regn pronounced rejn. g is dropped after a and a, as a stie, stairs (Germ. stiege); a due, valere (Germ. taugen, O. N. a

ch occurs only in foreign words.

The geminations gg and kk at the end of words are not written but pronounced, as tyk (thick)=tykk or tyck,  $\ddot{a}g$ , egg. For the O. N, ht we should, as in Swedish, expect tt, which in fact does occur in natt, night; aatte, eight; but gt instead of the gemination we find in magt, might; frugt, fruit.

# ROOTS AND THEMES'.

THE most ancient and primitive constituents of words in the Arvan languages are the roots. A root is the syllable which is the bearer of the meaning or signification of a given word; as for instance, the primitive as, to be, is the root of the words as-mi; I am; as-ti, he is. But the suffixes also which are used for the formation of themes and words were originally nothing but roots joined to the principal root or root of signification, relinquishing thereby their independence, and becoming, as it were, roots of relation, that is, expressing a certain meaning, not for its own sake, but for the purpose of defining, limiting, directing, the sense of the principal root. Then the consciousness of their formerly independent position was gradually lost, and they became mere suffixes, appendages to the principal root, without which they did not appear capable of any signification and existence of their own. It forms one of the most important tasks of the science of language to restore these suffixed roots to their primitive independence, to show them in their original shape and signification. Thus we have for instance in the word as-mi the root as, meaning 'to be,' and the root ma, which is weakened into mi and expresses the relation of the principal root to the 1st person. As an independent root ma means 'to measure, 'to think,' 'man' (homo), 'I' (ego); as-mi then means be-I=I am. As-ti, again, contains the principal root as and the root ta, weakened into ti, expressing the relation of the principal root to the 3rd person. The original meaning of ta is 'this' (hic, hæc, hoc), 'he' (is, ea, id); as-ti, then means be-he = he is. Hence the Sansk. as-mi, Gr. είμι (= ἔσ-μι), Lat. sum, Goth. im, Engl. am; and Sansk. as-ti, Gr. έσ-τι, Lat. est, Goth. ist, Engl. is, originally mean nothing else but simply 'be-I,' 'be-he,' i.e. 'I am,' 'he is'. Again, the primitive vak-s, speech (nom. sing.), consists of the principal root vak, speech, and the root sa, shortened into s, and meaning 'this,' 'the'; so that vak-s originally means 'speech-the,' and is a formation similar to that caused by the suffixed article in the Scandinavian languages.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Bopp, i. pp. 96-123. Schleicher, pp. 341-479.

To get at the root (the root, the principal root) of a word in its original shape, we must divest it of all syllables and letters which are used merely to express certain relations, and of all modifications which may have been caused by suffixes and terminations; so that the radical vowel especially, where it is lengthened or otherwise modified, is always reduced to its primitive form: e.g. of the primitive da-dá-mi, I give, da is the root; of vaks, speech, vak; of daiv-a-s, shining, heavenly, god, div; of dyau-s, heaven, dyu, = div; of su-nu-s, son, su, to beget, to bear.

All roots in the Aryan languages are monosyllables. They may occur in the following combinations of letters:—

- I. A single vowel, or rather a combination of 'spiritus lenis' and a vowel; as, a (demonst. pron.), i, to go; u, to rejoice.
- 2. One consonant + one vowel, e.g. da, to give; bhu, to become.
  - 3. One vowel + one consonant, e.g. ad, to eat; us, to burn.
- 4. One consonant + one vowel + one consonant, e. g. pat, to fly, to fall; vid, to see; bhug, to bend.
- 5. Two consonants + one vowel, e.g. sta, to stand; kru, to hear; pri, to love.
- 6. One vowel + two consonants, e.g. ardh, to grow; ark, to shine, to lighten.
- 7. Two consonants + one vowel + one consonant, e. g. star, to scatter; stigh, to mount, to ascend (Germ. steigen).
- 8. One consonant + one vowel + two consonants, e.g. dark, to see; vart, to turn.
- 9. Two consonants + one vowel + two consonants, e.g. skand, scandere.

Out of roots our languages formed themes. A theme is that part of the word which remains after we have removed from it all the terminations which declensions or conjugations require. The simple root, therefore, may be a theme as well. Thus in as-mi and as-ti, as- (to be) is the root as well as the theme of the present tense; in dyau-s, heaven,  $dyu \ (= div)$  is the nominal theme as well as the root.

Another mode of forming themes we observe in the addition of suffixes to the simple or reduplicated root with its vowel lengthened, or, as we called it, gradated; e.g. daiv-a-, nom. sing. daiva-s, divus, deus, where the root is div, out of which we form the theme by the gradation of the radical vowel, hence daiv-, and adding the suffix a (demonst. pron.), hence the theme daiva-, which in the nom. sing. assumes the inflexional termination -s, and thus becomes the word daiva-s. Themes formed directly

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Vide p. 22, sqq.

from the most we call 'primary,' and the suffixes used 'primary suffixes'; themes formed from other themes we call 'secondary,' and the suffixes used 'secondary suffixes.' One and the same suffix may be used to form a theme from the root, or from another theme; one and the same suffix therefore may in one position be primary, in another secondary.

### SUFFIXES USED IN THE FORMATION OF THEMES.

## Verbal Thexes.— Derivative 1.)

## **ya** (**a-ya**)

The radical vowel takes gradation, forming chiefly causative and transitive, but also derivative and intransitive verbs. a-ya-consists of a, the final vowel of the verbal or nominal theme, and ya, a suffix frequently used in the formation of themes. (Compare the pronominal root ya, relative and demonstrative.)

Examples :-

Sanakrit. bhúra-ya-ti, 3rd pers. sing. pres. of the causative verb, from the root bhar, nominal theme bhúra, burden, or the verbal theme bhara-bhara-ti, he bears'.

Greek. a-ya becomes a-ye, ε-ye, ο-ye (y dropped), e.g. τιμά, he honours, =τιμάει= τιμαγε-τι. from the theme τιμή, honour.

Latin. (1) aya is contracted into a, as sedu-l, he causes to sit, = 'seda-l = 'sedayi-l, root sed 'sed-eo, I sit). (2) aya contracted into c, as mone-mus='moneyi-mus, root mon = man, to think; mon-co, I remind. (3) aya contracted into i, e.g. sópio, to cause to sleep, = sopiyo, iyo = aya, hence sópiyo = prim. srápayá = srápayá-mi, root srap, sleep.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These form the verbs which in our Teutonic conjugations we call ' Weak.'

We frequently find nominal themes without any alteration used as verbal themes, occasionally with the addition of the suffix ya.

### 2. Nominal Themes 1.

This suffix is used very frequently; the root preceding it has the radical vowel sometimes lengthened, sometimes in its primitive form.

Examples:--

Sanskrit. bhav-a-, masc. being, origin, root bhu, to be; bhar-a-, masc. burden, root bhar, to bear; bodh-a, masc. knowledge, root budh, to know.

**Greek.**  $f \in \rho_{\gamma}$ -o- $(\nu)$ , neut. work, root  $f \in \rho_{\gamma}$ - $(\partial_{\rho} - \partial_{\alpha} - \mu_{\alpha}, I \text{ work})$ ; Φορ-ό-, adj. bearing,  $\phi$ όρ-ο-, tribute,  $\phi$ ορ-ά, offer, root  $\phi$ ερ, to bear; Φυγ-ή, fem. flight, root φυγ (φεύγ-ω, έ-φυγ-ον, to flee).

Latin. vad-o-, neut. vadum, a ford, root vad, to go; div-o-, divine; deo-, God, from †dev-o-, †deiv-o-, root prim. div, to shine.

Gothic. vig-a-, masc., nom. sing. vigs, way, root vag, vig-an, to move (Germ. be-wegen); vulf-a, masc., nom. vulfs, wolf, root Prim. vark, to tear; gib-a, fem., nom. sing. giba, gift (Germ. gabe), root gab, gib-an, to give; staig-a, path, root stig, steigan, to mount, to ascend (Germ steigen, comp. Engl. to sty).

## i

**Primitive.** ak-i, eye (A.S. eáge, Germ. auge), root ak, to have an edge, to be sharp, to see.

Sanskrit. lip-i-, writing, root lip, to smear; bodh-i, wise, root

budh, to know.

Greek.  $\delta \kappa$ - $\iota$ -, neut. eye; preserved in the dual  $\delta \sigma \sigma \epsilon = \delta \kappa y \epsilon$ ,  $\delta \kappa \iota \epsilon$ , root prim. ak, to have an edge, to see; τρόχ-ι-, masc. runner, root τρεχ, τρέχω, I run.

Latin. ovi-, ovis, sheep (comp. Greek of-i-s, Sansk. av-i-s), root

u, av, perhaps in the sense of 'to clothe.'

Gothic. mat-i-, nom. sing. mats, meat, root mat, mat-jan, to eat;  $q\hat{e}ni = kv\hat{e}n-i$ , fem. woman, prim.  $g\hat{a}n-i$ , root gan, to bear, bring forth.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Many of these suffixes are also used in the formation of verbs belonging to the 'Strong' conjugation. In this respect they are treated under the chapter of Strong Conjugations, Formation of the Present and Perfect Themes.

### u

Sanskrit. prath-u, prth-u, broad, root prath, to be extended; pur-u, much,  $=^{\uparrow}par-u$ , root par, to fill; svad-u, sweet, root svad, to taste.

Greek. πλατ-ύ, broad, = Sansk. prthu, root Sansk. prath, prim. prat; πολ-ύ, much, = Sansk. pur-u, prim. par-u; ἡδ-ύ, sweet, = Sansk. sradu, root srad.

Latin. Themes in u have passed into the declension in i, whence the u is always followed by i. Examples: — tenu-i-, tenuis, thin, from  ${}^{\dagger}ten-u$ -, prim. tan-u-, root tan, to extend, to stretch;  $su\acute{a}v$ -i-, sweet, for  ${}^{\dagger}su\acute{a}du$ -i, from  $sv\acute{a}d$ -u- (comp. Gr. i0-i0-i0-i0-i0. The form in u is preserved in ac-u-, acus, fem. needle, root ak, to have an edge, to be sharp, and several others.

Gothic. fol-u-, folus, foot, root prim. pad, to go; hand-u-, handus, hand; faih-u, cattle, wealth. But adjectives have the form in u in the nom. only, in the other cases they follow the themes in ya, e.g. haurs-u-, nom. sing. masc. haursu-s, neut. haursu, dry, acc. sing. masc. haurs-ja-na, &c., &c.

## ya

This suffix is used very frequently in all Aryan languages.

Sanskrit. vid-ya', fem. knowledge, root vid, to know; vak-ya, neut. speech, root vach; chc'-ya, root chi, to gather; pak-ya, root pach, to cook. Chiefly used to form the participium necessitatis.

Greek.  $\delta y$ - $\iota o$ -, holy, prim. yag-ya-, Sansk. yaj-ya-, venerandus, root yaj, to revere;  $\pi \dot{\alpha} \gamma$ - $\iota o$ -, fast, firm, root  $\pi \alpha \gamma$ ,  $\pi \dot{\gamma} \gamma$ - $\nu \nu \mu \iota$ , I fasten.

Latin. ad-ag-io-, adagium, adage, saying, proverb, root ag, to say (comp. ajo=ag-yo); exim-io-, eximius, excellent, root im, exim-o, I take out; conjug-io-, conjugium, marriage, root jug, to join (comp. jung-o, jug-um); fluv-io-, fluvius, river, root flu, fluere, to flow. The suffix io-ni- seems an extension of io by means of ni, e. g. leg-ioni-=leg-io-ni-, root leg, leg-cre; reg-ion-, reg-ioni-, root reg, reg-ere.

Gothic. band-ja-, fem. nom. sing. bandi, band, bandage; gabund-ja-, fem. nom. sing. ga-bundi, Germ. ge-bund. Engl. bund-le, root band, bind-an, to bind; kun-ya-, neut. nom. sing. kuni, genus, gens, root kan, prim. gan, to beget. Adjectives:—un-qep-ja-, nom. sing. un-gep-s, inexpressible, root qap, qip-an, to speak; anda-nem-ja-, nom. sing. anda-nem-s, agreeable (comp. Germ. ange-nehm), root nam, nim-an, to take (Germ. nehmen).

Gothic, like all Teutonic languages, frequently extends the suffix ja by adding n, originally perhaps ni. With adjectives this n has the function to impart to the adjective a certain relation or direction; hence and a-nem-jan by the side of and a-nem-ja; band-jan, masc. nom. sing. band-ja, a prisoner, root band, bind-an, to bind; gasinp-jan, companion, root sanp, to go (comp. sinp-s, path, way; sand-jan, to send).

Examples in Gothic are:—haird-ja-, masc. nom. sing. haird-eis, shep-kerd, Germ. kirt-e, from hairda, herd; anda-vaird-ja, neut. answer (comp. Germ. ant-wort), from rairda-, word (Germ. wort). These also are extended by n, as fisk-jan-, fisher, fisher-man, from fiska-, nom. sing. fisk-s, fish; manag-ein- for manag-jan-, nom. sing. managei, multitude, many, from managa-, adj. much.

## Va; related to it, Van

Sanskrit. pad-va, masc. way, root pad, to go; pak-va-, adj. cooked, root pach, to cook; ê-va, masc. itus, walk, root i, to go;

so also pad-van-, way (comp. pad-va-).

Greek. It is difficult to recognise the suffix va on account of the total disappearance of the letter v from this dialect. Examples are:  $-i\pi\pi o$ , horse for  $i\kappa - Fo$ , = Lat. equo, prim. ak-va-;  $\pi o\lambda\lambda\delta$  (= $\pi o\lambda\delta$ ), from  $^{\dagger}\pi o\lambda - Fo$ , prim. parva, root par, to fill. The suffix van we have in  $al\omega v$ , time, time of life (=al- $f\omega v$ -), prim. ai-van- (comp. Lat.  $\alpha$ -vo-, Gr. ai-va-, Sansk.  $\acute{e}$ -va-), root i, to go.

Latin. eq-vo-, horse; æ-vo- (see Greek); ar-vo-, ploughed, arvu-m, field, root ar, ar-are, to plough; vac-uo-, empty, root vac, vac-are, to be empty; al-vo-, fem. belly, root al, alere, to feed. Also formations in vo, as noci-vo-, vaci-vo- for noc-uo, &c.

Gothic. ai-va-, masc., nom. sing. aivs, time, root i, to go (comp. Sanskrit, Greek, Latin); O. S. ehu-, horse, requires a Gothic aih-ta- for a more ancient ih-va-, prim. ak-va.

vant, used to form a part. pret. active, probably a compound of va+nt (=ant), in the same manner as yant=ya+nt (ant) (see the comparative), and mant=ma+nt (ant), and ant=a+nt (ant); so that we get the orders ant, vant, yant, mant, by the side of an, yan, ran, man, and a, ya, va, ma, consisting of one, two, and three, component elements. It frequently occurs that suffixes of the second order may be used for those of the first, and suffixes of the third order may replace those of the second.

vant does not occur in the Teutonic languages, unless we except the nom. plur. masc. Goth. bêruejôs, parents, which is

supposed to stand for a more ancient beransjá-s = babar-ansya-s, root bar, Sansk. bhar, to bear, to beget.

## **ma** and **man** (=ma+an)

Sanskrit. jan-man, neut. birth, root jan, gignere; ná-man-, neut. name, = †gná-man-, root gna-gan, to know; ush-man-, summer, root ush, to burn.

Greek.  $\theta \epsilon \rho - \mu \delta$ , adj. hot,  $\theta \epsilon \rho - \mu \eta$ , fem. heat, root  $\theta \epsilon \rho$ ,  $\theta \epsilon \rho - o\mu a u$ , to grow hot;  $\gamma \nu \delta - \mu \eta$ , opinion, root  $\gamma \nu o$ , prim. gan, to know;  $\delta u - \epsilon - \mu o - v$ , wind, prim. root an, to breathe;  $\gamma \nu \omega - \mu o \nu - v$ , masc., nom. sing.  $\gamma \nu \delta - \mu \omega \nu$ , one who knows, root  $\gamma \nu o$ , prim. gan.

Latin. an-i-mo-, nom. sing. animus, mind, root an (see Greek); al-mo-, almus, nourishing, root al, alere; fâ-ma, report, root fa, fa-ri, to sav.

Gothic. The suffix ma is rarely used except in the superlative (see below). Examples:—nar-ma-, adj., nom. sing. varm-s, warm; O. H. Germ. tou-m, smoke, Sansk. dhu-ma-, Lat. fu-mo-, root dhu, to move. More frequent in Gothic is the suffix man, e.g. mal-man-, masc., nom. sing. mal-ma, sand, root mal, mal-an, Germ. ma-len, to grind; na-man-, neut., nom. sing. namb, name (comp. Sansk. ná-man). This suffix appears in an extended form with ya and with its vowel a weakened into u, as laúh-munja-, nom. sing. laúh-mani, lightning, prim. ruk-manya, root luh=prim. ruk, to shine, to lighten.

# ra (la)

Sanskrit. dip-ra-, shining, root dip, to shine; aj-ra-, a plain, floor, root aj, to go, to drive; an-i-la, wind, air, root an, to breathe.

Greek.  $\epsilon\rho\nu\theta-\rho\dot{o}$ -, red;  $\check{a}\kappa-\rho o$ -, topmost, highest;  $\check{a}\kappa-\rho a$ , top, root prim. ak, to have an edge, to be sharp;  $\delta\hat{\omega}-\rho o$ -, gift, root  $\delta o$ , to give;  $\pi\tau\epsilon-\rho\dot{o}$ -, neut. wing, root  $\pi\epsilon\tau$ , =Sansk. pat, to fly;  $\mu\epsilon\gamma-d\lambda o$ -, great, strictly 'grown', root prim. mag or magk, to grow;  $\sigma\tau\dot{\eta}-\lambda\eta$ , column, root  $\sigma\tau a$ , to stand.

Latin. rub-ro-, red, root rub, prim. rudk; gna-ro-, experienced, root gna=gan, to know; ple-ro-, much, root ple=pra=par, to fill; sella, chair, = sed-la-, root sed, sedere, to sit; cande-la, candle, light, root cande-, candére, to glow, to be white.

Gothic. bait-ra, bitter, O. H. Germ. bittar, bitter, root bit, beitan, to bite; mik-ila-, great, = Gr. μεγάλο-, prim. root mag or magh, to grow; sit-la, seat, nest, root sat, to sit.

### an

**Sanskrit.** raj-an-, nom. sing. raj-a, king, root raj, to shine; **snéh-an**, friend, root snih, to love; ud-an-, neut. water, root ud, to moisten.

**Greek.** τερ-εν-, nom. sing. masc. τέρ-ην, tender, root τερ, τεί-ρω, I rub; είκ-όν-, fem., nom. είκ-ων, image (comp. ε΄-οι-κα, perf. I resemble); λειχ-ήν, lichen, root λιχ, λείχω, I lick; κλύδ-ων, billow, root κλυδ, κλύζω, I wash.

Letin. com-pag-en-, nom. sing. compago, fixture, root pag, pango, I fasten; pect-en, neut. comb, pecto, I comb; ed-on-, glutton, root ed, edo, I eat.

Gothic. liub-a-, nom. sing. masc. liub-s, Germ. lieb, dear, in an indefinite sense; liub-an-, nom. sing. masc. liub-a, dear, in a definite sense, root lub, Sansk. lubh; raud-a-, red, indef.; raud-an-, red, def., root prim. rudh, to be red.

### ana

Used chiefly in the formation of themes which occur as infinitives; further, nomina actionis and nomina agentis.

Sanskrit. gam-ana-, to go, root gam, to go; bhar-ana-, to bear, root bhar; nay-ana-, neut. eye, 'that which guides,' root ni, to guide; vad-ana-, mouth, 'that which speaks,' root vad, to speak; vah-ana-, waggon, 'that which conveys,' root vah, to fare, to convey.

Greek. δρέπ-ανο-, sickle, root δρεπ, δρέπ-ομαι, I cut off; τύμπ-ανο-, neut. drum, root τυπ, τύπτω, I beat; ὅχ-ανο-, handle, root ἔχ, ἔχω, I have, hold.

Latin. pág-ina, fem., leaf, page, root pag, to join, fix; dom-ino-, master, fem. dom-ina, mistress, root dom, domo, to overcome, to tame.

Gothic. Infinitives: bair-an, to bear, theme prim. bhar-ana-, pres. theme Goth. baira-, root bar, Sansk. bhar; it-an, to eat, pres. theme ita-, root at, prim. ad; sit-an, to sit, pres. theme sita-, root sat, prim. sad.

### na

Themes with na are frequently used as part. pret. passive, identical in meaning to those in ta.

Sanskrit. svap-na, sleep, root svap, to sleep; anna, food,  $=^{\dagger}ad-na$ , root ad, to eat; part. pret. pass. pur-na, root par, to fill;  $stir-na==^{\dagger}star-na$ , root star, sternere, to scatter.

Greek. Adjectives:  $\sigma \in \mu \nu \delta = \tau \sigma \in \beta - \nu \delta$ , revered, root  $\sigma \in \beta$ ,  $\sigma \in \beta - \nu \delta$ , revere;  $\delta \gamma - \nu \delta$ , revered, sanctified, root  $\delta \gamma$ , a  $\zeta - \sigma \mu \omega$ , I revere.

Latin. ple-no-, filled, full, root ple=pla=pra=par, to fill; mag-no-, great, literally 'grown,' root mag, Sansk. mak, to grow.

Gothic. Part. pret. passive: baira-na, pres. theme baira, root bar, to bear; viga-na, pres. theme viga-, root vag, to move; buya-na, root bug, to bend (Germ. biegen); bar-na-, nom. sing. barn, child, 'that which has been born,' root bar.

na, ná (Gothic), used in the formation of passive intransitive verbal forms, as ga-hail-ni-p, he is healed, from heil-s, heal, theme haila- (comp. hail-ja-n, to heal); veih-ni-p, he is sanctified, he

becomes holy, from veih-s holy, theme veiha-.

## ni

Compare ti. Orders of similar meaning are na, ni, nu, and ta, ti, tu.

Sanskrit. ylá-ni-, fatigue, root gla, to lose strength; há-ni-, abandon, abandonment, root ha, to abandon.

Greek.  $\mu \hat{\eta}$ - $\nu \iota$ -,  $\mu \hat{\eta} \nu \iota$ s, wrath, root prim. ma, to think.

Latin. ig-ni-, fire, Sansk. ag-ni-; pa-ni-, bread, root pa (comp. pa-sco, to feed).

Gothic. hausei-ni-, hearing, = hausja-ni, verbal theme hausja, to hear; gölci-ni-, greeting, verbal theme gölja-, to greet; libai-ni-, life, verbal theme libai-, to live.

### nu

Sanskrit. ta-nu-, thin, root ta, tan, to stretch; su-nu-, born, son, root su, to beget, to bear (comp. Goth. barn, son, root bar); bhu-nu, sun, root bha, to shine.

Greek.  $\theta\rho\hat{\eta}$ -ro-, stool, root  $\theta\rho a$ ,  $\theta\rho\hat{\eta}$ - $\sigma a\sigma\theta a\iota$ , to sit down,  $\theta\rho\hat{a}$ -vos, seat, root prim. dhra, dhar, to hold, support.

Latin. te-nu-i-, thin (comp. Sansk. ta-nu-); perhaps also ma-nu-, hand, prim. root ma, to measure, to form.

Gothic. su-nu, son (comp. Sansk.); as to kinnu, it is doubtful whether it is formed by the suffix nu.

### ta

Compare the pronominal root ta. This suffix is frequently used to form the part perf. passive, the 3rd person of the verb, perhaps also the abl. sing. of the noun.

Sanskrit. ma-ta-, root ma, man, to think; bhr-ta-, root bhar, to bear; yuk-ta-, root yuj, to join.

**Greek.**  $\kappa\lambda\nu$ - $\tau\delta$ -, root  $\kappa\lambda\nu$ , to hear;  $\sigma\pi\alpha\rho$ - $\tau\delta$ -, root  $\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho$ , to sow;

στα-τό-, root στα, to stand.

**Latin.** da-to-, root da, to give; sta-to-, root sta, to stand; di-ru-to-, root ru, to fall down; passo-= $^{\dagger}$ pas-to= $^{\dagger}$ pat-to, root sat, to suffer.

Gothic. sati-da- of satjan, root sat, to set; veihai-da-; mah-tafor mag-da-, from the perf. theme mag, I am able, may; pah-ta
for pak-da-, root pak, to think; brah-ta for brag-da, root brag, to
bring. (On the change of the final g of the root into h before
the dental, see the letters h and g, pp. 116, 128.)

# tar, tra

The suffix -tar is used to form nomina agentis, and the part. fut. active; -tra, nomina which denote an instrument and the like. The origin of these suffixes is obscure; perhaps they both are derived from tara, a compound of ta + ra, in the same manner as man and mna from mana = ma + na. Formations with these suffixes are traced to the primitive language, especially those in -tar-, used as family terms; e.g. ma-tar-, genitrix, mother, root ma, gignere, to produce, to bear; pa-tar-, father, root pa, to protect, to govern; bhrá-tar-, brother, root bhar, bhra, to bear, to support; da-tar-, giver, root da, to give; su-tar-, woman, root m, to beget, to bear, hence sva-star = sva-sutar-, sister; gan-tar-, genitor, begetter, root gan, to beget. Instrumental nouns in -tra, as dak-tra-, tooth, root dak, to bite; ga-tra-, limb, root ga, to go, to move; krau-tra-, ear, root kru, to hear.

Sanskrit. pi-tar-, father; má-tar, mother; bhrá-tar, brother; wasar- (sister) for 'sva-star='sva-sutar-; kar-tar, root kar, to make; pak-tar-, root pach, to cook, &c.; da-tár, fem. nom. sing. da-tri = da-tryá, the feminine being formed by the addition of the secondary suffix ya, except in family terms where both the masculine and feminine may end in tar (comp. má-tar, mother). Suffix -tra: gá-tra, limb, root ga, to go; vas-tra-, vestis, clothes, root vas, to clothe; vak-tra, mouth, root vach, to speak.

Greek.  $-\tau\epsilon\rho$ ,  $-\tau\eta\rho$ ,  $-\tau\sigma\rho$ , for the primitive -tar, e.g.  $\pi\alpha-\tau\epsilon\rho$ -, father;  $\mu\eta-\tau\epsilon\rho$ -, mother;  $\delta\sigma-\tau\eta\rho$ - or  $\delta\omega-\tau\eta\rho$ , giver;  $\rho\eta$ - $\tau\sigma\rho$ -, orator, root  $\rho\epsilon=\epsilon\rho$ , to speak;  $f(\sigma-\tau\sigma\rho)$ -,  $(\sigma\tau\omega\rho)$ , one who knows, who bears witness, root  $f\iota\delta$ , to know;  $-\tau\nu\rho$  only in  $\mu\Delta\rho-\tau\nu\rho$ -, witness, root smar, to remember. The primitive -tra becomes in Greek  $-\tau\rho\sigma$ ,  $-\theta\rho\sigma$  (neut.),  $-\tau\rho\sigma$ ,  $-\theta\rho\sigma$  (fem.). Examples:— $\Delta\rho\sigma-\tau\rho\sigma$ -, plough, from the verbal theme  $\Delta\rho\sigma$ -, to plough, root  $\Delta\rho$ ;  $(\tau\sigma)$ 

physician, verbal theme la, la-ομαι, to heal; βά-θρο-, ground, lottom, root  $\beta a = \text{prim. } ga$ , to go; κοιμή-θρα, sleeping place,

dormitory, verbal theme κοιμα-, κοιμάω, to cause to sleep.

Latin. The family terms end in ter, tr, the nomina agentis in tôr, for the primitive tar; e. g. pa-ter, mâ-ter, frâ-ter (but sorôr-from †sosôr-, †sos-tor, †sva-s-tar, †sva-su-tar); vic-tôr-, root vic; censôr-= cens-tor, root cens, censeo. Future participles: da-turo-, vic-turo-; the fem. tura forms nomina actionis, e. g. sepul-tūra (comp. sepul-tūs), sepelio, to bury. tro=prim. tra, e. g. rôs-tro-, rostrum, beak,= †rod-tro, root rod, rôdare, to gnaw; claus-tro= †claud-tro, root claud, claudere, to lock. We have an extension of the suffix tra by the addition of the suffix ya in the terminations -trio-, and -torio-, as pa-tr-io-, audi-tor-io, &c.; tric, by the addition of ic, as vic-tr-ic-; trina, by the addition of ina, as doc-tr-ina, root doc.

Gothic. The suffix tar is preserved in family terms only, e.g. fa-dar, father; bró-þar, brother; daúh-tar, daughter; svis-tar, sister. Suffix tra forms neuter nouns, as maúr-þra, nom. sing. maúr-þr, murder, prim. root mar, to die; O. H. Germ. hla-tar, laughter, root hlah, Goth. hlah-jan, to laugh; O. H. Germ. ruodar, rudder, oar (Germ. ruder), root ra=ar (comp. ar-are, &c).

## ti

Sanskrit. ma-li-, opinion, root ma, man, to think; uk-li, speech, root vach, to speak; yuk-li, junction, root yuj, to join; pá-li-, lord, root pa, to protect.

Greek.  $\tau_i$  or  $\sigma_i$ :  $\mu_i^2 - \tau_i^2$ , prudence, root ma, to think;  $\phi d - \tau_i^2$ , saying, report, root  $\phi a$ , to say;  $\phi \psi - \tau_i$ , nature, root  $\phi \nu$ , to grow.

Latin. do-ti-, dos, dowry, root da, to give; men-ti, mens, mind, root men=man, ma, to think; ves-ti-, root prim. vas, to clothe. An extension of ti is tio, tia=ti+o (a, perhaps for ya): in-i-tio-, beginning, root i, to go; justi-tia- from justo, &c.

Gothic has -di and -thi for the primitive -ti, e.g. kno-di-, genus, gens, prim. root gna = gan, gignere; mah-ti-, might, power =  ${}^{\dagger}mag$ -ti, root mag, to be able; ga-mun-di-, remembrance, root mun = man, ma, to think; an-s-ti- favour, root an, to favour; fa-di-, nom. sing. fa-p-s, lord, prim. root pa, to protect (comp. Sansk. pa-ti-).

### tar

Used in the formation of verbal nouns.

Sanskrit. da-tu-m, root da, to give; stha-tu-m, root stha, to stand; vel-tu-m, root rid, to know; kar-tu-m, root kar, to make.

Greek. βρω-τύ-, meat, root βρο (comp. βι-βρώ-σκω); ἐδη-τύ-, meat, root ἐδ, to eat; ἄσ-τυ = Γάσ-τυ, town, prim. root ras, to dwell. Secondary suffix is  $-\sigma vv\eta = ^{\dagger} - \tau vv\eta$ , e. g. δικαισ-σύνη from δίκαισ-, just; μνημο-σύνη, remembrance, theme  $\mu v \hat{\eta} \mu \sigma v$ -, mindful, root  $\mu ev = man$ , ma, to think.

Letin. sta-tu-, nom. sing, status, root sta, to stand; dic-tu-, root dic, to say; vic-tu-, root vig, viv, viv-o, to live, &c., &c. Secondary suffixes used in the formation of abstracts are tu-ti-, tu-don-, and tu-diu-, as servi-tuti-, ulti-tudin-.

Gothic. dan-pu-, death, root dan, div, du, to die; vraté-du-, journey, theme vraté, to go; vahs-lu-, root vahs, to grow. The suffix -dea (= Sansk. -tea, Lat. -tuo) forms secondary themes, as piva-dea-, servitude, from piva-, pius, servant.

# ant, nt

Used chiefly in the formation of the participle active out of the theme of the present tense.

Sanskrit. ad-ant, root and theme of the present ad, to eat; tuda-nt, root tud, to push, to strike; fem. ad-ati, neut. ad-at, &c.

**Greek.** -ovt, -vt, fem. †-ovtya, †-vtya, which becomes -ovaa, -ovaa, e. g.  $\phi \in \rho$ -rt-, fem.  $\phi \in \rho$ -vaa = † $\phi \in \rho$ -rtaa †  $\phi \in \rho$ -rtya, root  $\phi \in \rho$ . to bear;  $\tau : \theta \in \rho$ -rt-, root  $\theta \in \rho$ . to set;  $\delta \in \delta \in \rho$ -rt-, root  $\delta v$ , to give, so also the 2nd aor.  $\theta \in \rho$ -vt-,  $\delta \in \rho$ -vt-.

Latin. -ent, ancient -ont, -unt: rehe-nt-, root reh, to fare, to convey; rol-ent-, ancient rol-ont-, rol-unt-, root rol, to will. (pra)-s-ent-=es-ent, root and pres. theme es, Sansk. as, to be; i-ent-, e-unt-=†e-ont-, root i, to go. Secondary formations are the abstracts in antia, entia, antium, entium, =ant, ent + ia, io, prim. ya, e.g. silent-iu-m, licent-ia, abundant-ia.

Gothic. bairands, pres. part. = bira-nd(a)-s, root bar, to bear; giba-nd-, root gab, pres. theme giba-. Other Teutonic dialects show with these participles an extension of the theme by means of adding the suffix ya, as O.S. hëlpandja-, helping, definite form helpandjan.

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The themes in -as are commonly used as neuter nomina actionis, rarely as nomina agentis.

Sanskrit. jan-as, genus, root jan, gignere; man-as, sense, root man, to think; vach-as, speech, root rach, to speak; ap-as, work, root ap.

**Greek.**  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu$ -os, sense, courage, wrath, gen.  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu$ -co-os,  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu$ -cos, por  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu = man$ , to think;  $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu$ -os, gen.  $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \iota$ -co-os,  $\gamma \dot{\epsilon} \nu$ -cos,

 $\tilde{\epsilon}\pi$ -os =  $f\hat{\epsilon}\pi$ -os,  $f\hat{\epsilon}\pi$ - $\epsilon\sigma$ -, word, root  $f\epsilon\pi$ , prim. rak, Sansk. vack, speak;  $\mu\hat{\eta}\kappa$ -os,  $\mu\hat{\eta}\kappa$ - $\epsilon\sigma$ -, length, root  $\mu\alpha\kappa$ ,  $\mu\alpha\kappa$ - $\rho\delta$ -, long.

Latin. gen-us, ancient †gen-os, Sansk. jan-as, root gen, gigner op-us, work, old form †op-os, Sansk. ap-as; foed-us, old for foid-os, root fid, fido; corp-us, Sansk. root karp; jus, right, of form jov-os, root ju, to join; pus, old form pov-os, root pu, to root masculines in or=os, e. g. arb-or=arb-os; sop-or, prim. re scap, to sleep.

Gothic expresses the primitive as by -isa, as if it came for an ancient -asa, theme in a. Examples:—hat-isa-, nom. sin hatis, hate, root hat, hat-a, I hate; ag-isa-, nom. sing. ag-is, for root ag, og, I fear. In Old High German the suffix prim. Goth. -isa, O. H. Germ. -ira, is used in the plural only, wh the suffix a forms the singular, e.g. sing. grab, grave, from primitive graba-m, plur. nom. grab-ir, = ancient †grab-isa, mo ancient †grab-asa. (Concerning the formation of the plural ir, er, see the Teutonic Declensions of the Noun.)

## ka

Sanskrit. This suffix is rarely used in primary, but more f quently in secondary themes, as putra-ka, little son, from put son.

**Greek**, secondary suffix in φυσι-κό-, theme φυσι-; θηλυθηλυ-; καρδία-κό-, καρδία.

Latin, secondary suffix in civi-co-, theme civi-; urbi-c theme urbi-; belli-co-, theme belli-.

Gothic, primary suffix in O. H. Germ. fol-ca, neut. folk (con Slavonic plŭ-kŭ, multitude, army), prim. par-ka, root par, to 1 Secondary suffix in anda-ga, beatus, theme anda-, happine handu-ga, wise, skilful, theme handu-, hand; staina-ha-, petre theme staina-, stone (Germ. stein). The suffix -iska is used derivative adjectives which correspond to those ending in -ika Greek and Latin, as barn-iska-, childish, from the theme barn neut. child.

Note.—All other suffixes will be explained in their proplaces, when we treat on the Comparisons, Numerals, &c., &c.

# PRONOUNS.

# PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

## TABLE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN THE COGNATE LANGUAGES.

## 1st and 2nd Person.

### SINGULAR.

	Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.
Nom.	aham	èyé	ego	ik
	tvam	σύ	tu	bus
Accus	. mâm, mâ	<b>ἔμέ, μέ</b>	më	mik
	tvâm, tvâ	σέ, τέ	tē	buk
Instr.	mayâ	1 1		1
	trayâ			1
Dat.	mahyam	₹μίν	mihi	mis
	mê	!		1
	tubhyam	Tetu, Tiv	tibi	bus
	trê, tê	1		
Abl.	mat		me(d)	i
	mattas			
	trat	1	te(d)	i
	tratias			
Gen.	mama	<i>ξμο</i> υ, μοῦ	mei	meina
	mê			
	tava	σοῦ	tui	beina
	tê			, , , , ,
Loc.	mayi	€μοί, μοί	mei	mis
	travi	σοί	tui	bus
Nom.	âvâm	း မှတ်, မှတ်၊ ၂		vit
	yuvâm	σφώ, σφῶι		tyut
Accus	. ârâm	vú, vůi		ugkis
	nau	1 1		
	yurâm	σφώ, σφῶι		igqis
	râm	1 '. '. ' . 1		
Instr.	âvâbhyâm			
	yuvâbhyá <b>m</b>	1 1		
Dat.	âvâbhyâ <b>m</b>	ציים, ציים איני		ugkis
	nâu			
	yurâbhyâm	σφῶιν, σφῷν		iggis
	vâm	1 '. : : 1		· · · .
Abl.	âvâbhyâm	l l		
	yurâ' hyâm	1 1		
Gen.	âvayôs	1 1		tugkara
	nâu	1 1		
	yurayês			†igqara
		1 i		1
	râ <b>m</b>	1		
Loc.	va <b>m</b> âvayôs	: : :		

PLURAL.

Sanskrit.		Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.		
Nom.	vayam asmê	tupes, hueis	1008	veis		
	yûyam yushmê	<b>δμμες, όμεῖς</b>	708	yus		
Accus	gastine . asmān naḥ	երրւշ, դրանց	908	uneis		
	yushmân vah	ύμμε, δμᾶs	908	izvis		
Instr.	asmâbhih yushmâbhih		nobis vobis			
Dat.	asmabhyam nah	երրա, դրա	nobis	uneis		
	yushmabhyam vah	<b>Մ</b> աս, ծանս	vobis	izvis		
Abl.	asmat vushmat		nobis vobis	: : :		
Gen.	asmâkam nah	ձրրվար, դրար	nostri	unsara		
	yushmākam rah	ծր <del>անա</del> , ծրա	vestri	izvara		
Loc.	asmāsu yushmāsu		:::	::::		

## 3rd Person.

### SINGULAR1.

### Prak.

Accusative	•		₹, ₹€	<b>se</b>	sik
Instrumental Dative		•	Elv. Tu		• • •
Genitive	sē sē		elo, 10	sibi sui	sis scina
Locative	•		éoî, ol		

# REMARKS ON THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS OF THE COGNATE LANGUAGES.

From the personal terminations of the verb, as well as from the different cases of the pronoun itself, the primitive root of the 1st singular appears as ma, of the 2nd singular as tu or tva. Schleicher considers this ma, 'ego,' identical with the verbal root ma, 'to measure, to think,' a root from which is also derived 'man,' Sansk. ma-nu-, Goth. ma-n-, i.e. the being that 'thinks'; a very appropriate term for individual self-assertion, quite as

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The singular supplies, except in Greek, the place of the plural.

distinct as, and far more concise than, the well known 'cogito, ergo sum' of the scholastic school. The derivation of the root tes is obscure.

## ist Person Nominative Singular.

Primitive (Ursprache) agam or agham. Whether ag, agh is the root and -am a termination, which occurs in Sanskrit too not unfrequently, or the initial a is the remainder of the root ma, and agham stands for ma-gha-m, is not decided. The primitive ag-am is represented in Sanskrit by ah-am, Gr.  $\epsilon\gamma-\omega$ , Æol.  $\epsilon\gamma-\omega\nu$ , Lat.  $\epsilon g$ -0, Goth. ik.

### 2nd Person Nominative Singular.

The primitive tu-am is in Sanskrit represented by tvám (= tu-am), Gr.  $\sigma\dot{v}$  for the more ancient and Doric  $\tau\dot{v}$ , Dor. and Ep.  $t\dot{v}$ - $\eta$ , Booot.  $t\sigma\dot{v}$ v, where the final v is considered the last remnant of the termination am, of the primitive tu-am, just as in  $t\dot{v}$  $v\dot{v}$  for tu for tu and the Gothic tu are the weakened forms of tvtu.

### ACCUSATIVE SINGULAR.

In this, as well as in the remaining cases of the singular, the proper bases of these pronouns become distinctly apparent, i. e. (1) ma, (2) tva, (3) sva. The primitive language probably used for the accusatives (1) ma-m, (2) tva-m, (3) sva-m; so also in Sanskrit the roots ma, tva, are treated as bases in a and form the accusatives (1)  $m\vec{a}$ -m, (2)  $tv\vec{a}$ -m (enclit.  $m\vec{a}$ ,  $tv\vec{a}$ ). Greek (1)  $\vec{\epsilon}$ - $\mu\vec{\epsilon}$ , μέ, (2) σέ, Dor. τέ for τέ, (3) έ, Æol. έξ=σέξ, Hom. έξ, probably for  $\sigma \in F_{\epsilon}$ . Characteristic of all these Greek accusatives is the loss of the accusative termination m. The Latin accusatives (1) mê, (2) tê, (3) sê, for me-m, te-m, tve-m, se-m, sve-m, seem to lead us to an original mi-m, tvi-m, svi-m, where we have the bases mi, tvi and svi, instead of the primitive ma, tva and sva, as they distinctly appear in the datives ti-bi, si-bi, and in the Umbr. ti-om for tu-om, Osc. si-om for su-om. The Gothic also shows the base  $\dagger mi$  for  $\dagger ma = \dagger ma - m$  in the accus. (1) mi - k, where the k corresponds to the primitive ga, Sansk. gha, ha, Gr. ye, a particle of emphatic force, so that mi-k would be represented by a primitive †ma-m-ga, Gr. †με-γε. In the same manner the accus. (2) bu-k would be rendered by a primitive tu-m-ga, (3) si-k, sva-m-ga.

### LOCATIVE SINGULAR.

The locative case in the Ursprache is formed by adding the  $\leq$  termination i to the root, (1) ma-i, (2) tva-i, (3) sva-i. These are  $\leq$  rendered in Sanskrit, (1) ma-y-i, (2) tva-y-i; a more ancient form was (1) me. (2) te, tve, which though originally a locative came to be chiefly employed as an enclitic form to express the relations of the genitive and dative. Gr. (1)  $t-\mu o-t$ ,  $\mu o-t$ ; (2)  $\sigma o-t=\sigma fo-t=\tau fo-t$ , (3) oi, toi, primitive form sava-i. In Latin wanting. The form which in Gothic expresses the relations of the dative is supposed to have originally been a locative, so that the words (1) mi-s, (2) pm-s, (3) si-s, are the relics of locatives, i. e. ma-smin, tu-smin, sva-smin.

### DATIVE SINGULAR.

Primitive (1) ma-bhiam, (2) tu-bhiam, (3) sta-bhiam. The suffix bhiam which we find added to the root is one of the extensions of the simpler form bhi, a form which in various modifications is applied to perform the functions of the locative and the dative, in nouns as well as pronouns. The Sansk. (1) ma-hyam for  $^{\dagger}$ ma-bhyam, (2) tu-bhyam; Gr. (1) Dor.  $^{\dagger}$ hiv. (2) Hom.  $^{\dagger}$ e-tv, Dor.  $^{\dagger}$ lor. (3)  $^{\dagger}$ tv (korinna), contracted  $^{\dagger}$ v, probably derived from the more ancient forms  $^{\dagger}$ è $^{\dagger}$ e- $^{\dagger}$ v,  $^{\dagger}$ e- $^{\dagger}$ v,  $^{\dagger}$ e- $^{\dagger}$ v,  $^{\dagger}$ e- $^{\dagger}$ v, being a true dative suffix in the place of the primitive bhiam, and altogether distinct from the locative bhi. The Latin (1) mi-hi=mi-bi=mi-bei; (2) ti-bi=ti-bei, (3) si-bi=si-bei, show the bases mi, ti=tri, and si=sei, which are the weakened forms of the primitive ma, tea, sra, the inflexional suffix bi, bii, from the primitive bhiam (comp. Sansk. above), which gradually declined to bei(m), bei, bi(m) (comp. sit for siet, seit). In Gothic the dative is supplied by the locative.

### ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

Primitive (1) ma-t, mama-t, (2) tra-t, (3) sra-t. The Sanskrit forms are identical with these: (1) ma-t, (2) tra-t, followed by the ablative termination tas (1) mat-tas, (2) toat-tas (comp. i-tas, a-tas, from here, from there). In Greek it is wanting: the termination  $-\theta \epsilon \nu$  in  $\epsilon \mu \dot{\epsilon} - \theta \epsilon \nu$ ,  $\sigma \dot{\epsilon} - \theta \epsilon \nu$ ,  $\epsilon - \theta \epsilon \nu$ ,  $- \delta \kappa \sigma - \theta \epsilon \nu$  is not the Sanskrit tas, but dhas, as in a-dhas, down from. Latin (1) me-d, (2) te-d=tve-d, (3) se-d=sve-d, which forms are considered regular ablatives (for mei-d, tei-d, tei-d, of the Latin bases mi, ti, si. Gothic wanting.

## GENITIVE SINGULAR.

The primitive language is supposed to have at an early period formed this case by means of the reduplication of the root, (1) ma-s, mama-s, (2) tva-s, tvatva-s. The Sanskrit drops the **case** termination: (1) mama, (2) tava. Greek (1) ε-με-ι̂ο = ma-sya, with the usual case suffix sya, whence ε-μέο by dropping the sibilant, and then by contraction: ε-μεῦ, μεῦ, ε-μοῦ, μοῦ; (2) τεο-ι̂ο=tava-sya, root tava, Gr. τεΓο; from †τΓε-ιο it became  $\sigma$ εο,  $\sigma$ εῦ,  $\sigma$ οῦ; (3) ε-ίο = sva-sya, hence εο, εὖ, οὖ. The Doric forms, such as έμέος, έμεῦς, έμοῦς, add the genitive termination s to the old genitive. The genuine genitive is wanting in Latin, and its functions are performed by the genitive of the possessive Pronouns mei, tui, sui, for †me-io, †tovo, †sovo, = primitive ma-ya, ra, sa-va. (Compare the Latin tuus=†tovo-s, †tevo-s with the Greek refó-s, suus=†sovo-s, †sevo-s, Gr. éfós.) The Gothic forms meina, (2) peina, (3) seina are considered of a more recent mation, having no connexion with the primitive mana, mama, originating perhaps in the plural genitive of an adjective Se. (Compare Latin mei, &c.)

### Instrumental Singular.

Its existence in the Ursprache is uncertain, the Sanskrit forms are (1) ma-ya, (2) tva-ya. The Greek, Latin, and Gothic languages are devoid of these forms.

### PLURAL.

The base of the plural pronouns is in its origin perhaps nothing but a compound of the bases for the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd singular with the suffix sma: (1) ma-sma, (2) tva-sma (ma-sma, 'I and he,' tva-sma, 'thou and he'). As to the terminations, it is doubtful whether to these bases were joined the usual case suffixes of the plural, or those of the pronominal declension, or those of the singular; and on the whole the terminations are of minor importance in the formation of the plural of the personal pronoun where the modifications of the root imprint a peculiar character on the different languages: Sansk. (1) a-sma, (2) yu-shma, where the a and yu are considered to be the remains of the primitive ma and tva. The case suffixes are partly those of the plural, partly of the singular.

In Greek all the plural bases are treated as themes in i; they are (1) primitive asma-, hence  $d\sigma\mu$ , from which by assimilation

the Eol. αμμε-, αμμι, and the usual form ημι- for αλμι; (2) primitive yu-sma-, whence yusmi-, Æol. δμμε-, δμμι-, and the con mon ὑμι-, where the vowel is lengthened on account of the elimin of s (comp. εἰμί for 'εσμι), and the spirant y is replaced by k The nominatives (1) ἡμεῖς, (2) ὑμεῖς, (3) σφεῖς, are regular formstions of themes in i, while the .Eol. appes, Dor. apes, &c., show the same termination with the vowel shortened, i. e. es instead of es, εις. The accusatives ήμας, &c., are the contracted forms of inter, &c., and regular themes in i (primitive \*asmay-ans). άμμε, &c., is formed analogously to the sing. εμέ. The dat. Rol. άμμι(ν) and the common ήμιν are in analogy to the dat. sing. èμίν, primitive asmi-bhyam, whence †àμμι-φιν, &c. σφι-σι(ν) is d course the common locative dative. The genitives Æol. appl with ήμεί-ων, ήμε-ων, are regular transformations of the primitive asmay-am. The bases of the 2nd and 3rd persons follow a similar course.

The Lat. (1) nos, (2) vos, seem to have introduced an inorganic of in place of a more ancient nos, ros, which would strictly correspond to the Sansk. nas and vas. The datives and ablatives (1) nobis, (2) robis, have the plural in bi, like tibi, where bi=bis stands for the primitive bhyam-s; vo and no for vos, vo-s, and nos, no-smo; so that no-bi-s, vo-bi-s, stand for the more ancient nos-bei-is, tros-bei-is (s dropped before b and compensated for by the production of the vowel), primitive ma-sma-bhyam-s, tva-sma-bhyam-s. The genitives (1) nos-tru-m, nos-tri, (2) vos-tru-m, vos-tri, are pronominal adjectives in tero, the primitive suffix tara, chiefly used in the formation of comparatives; the genitives in i have the singular, those in um the plural termination, the latter being sometimes replaced in Plautus by orum, e.g. nostrorum for nostrum, primitive forms ma-sma-taram, tva-sma-taram.

Goth. nom. (1) veis, plural of a base in i, vi-, perhaps for mi, ma, (2) jus. The accus. and dat. (1) unsi-s, uns (abbreviated form), (2) izvi-s, where s seems to stand in analogy to that of the dat. sing., and the themes (1) unsi, (2) izvi, are considered inversions of the original (1) ma-sma, (2) tva-sma. The genitives (1) unsara, (2) izvara, are adjective stems in the same inflexional case as the sing. meina, &c., that is, most likely, the genitive plural.

### THE DUAL.

Sanskrit (1) base, ava-, (2) base, yuva-, which are treated as if they were feminine. These bases are thought to be the mutilated forms of the more primitive  $^{\dagger}ma$ -dva-,  $^{\dagger}dva$ -dva-; the a and

the pronouns ma and tva, and va might very likely be the stillated numeral dva (two). Greek (1) nom. and accus.  $v\omega$ , from a base  $vo-: v\omega$  seems to be formed in analogy to the dative. (2)  $\sigma\phi\omega$ , probably from a more ancient  ${}^{\dagger}\tau F\omega$ , with  $\sigma\phi\omega$ , seems to be an analogon to (3)  $\sigma\phi\omega$ , which consists of  $\sigma\phi\omega$ , as the base, and  $-\epsilon$  a new dual termination, as we find with the substantives. In the dat. and gen. (1)  $v\omega$ -v, (2)  $\sigma\phi\omega$ -v, (3)  $\sigma\phi\omega$ -tv, we have the termination  $-iv = -\phi iv$ , corresponding to the Sanskrit bhydm, has bhi. In Latin the dual is wanting.

Gothic nom. (1) vi-t; vi- is the pronominal base (comp. nom. plur. vei-s), and the -t is the relic of the numeral tva (two); (2) does not occur in the documents, but in analogy to the Old Norse it may have been i-t=ju-t, which would be formed similarly to the 1st person, the -t being the numeral tra, and the ithe remnant of the pronoun ju- (comp. 2nd plur. ju-s). In the dat. and accus. (1) ugki-s, (2) igk-vis, the -s is the same termination as in the dat. sing. and plur. The origin of the bases ugki-, igkvi- is obscure; they are considered as being of a more recent formation. Gen. (1) ugka-ra, (2) igkva-ra have the same termination as the plur. (1) unsa-ra, (2) izva-ra. From this similarity between the dual and plural forms it will appear that the former is not organic, but merely an inflexional modification of the plural, since, according to Bopp, the dual and plural bases are the mutilated remains of one and the same suffix which was originally used in the plural only, and later on came to be applied to express the dual, i.e. ema, which by metathesis becomes in the plural msa = Teut. nsi, and in the dual mha = Teut. nki.

We cannot more aptly conclude this chapter than by quoting a remark made by Schleicher with regard to these pronouns:—
'On reviewing,' he says, 'the bases of the personal pronouns which differ so widely in the various languages, it becomes evident that here we have not to deal with changes occurring in accordance with phonetic laws, but with more or less arbitrary commutations. It appears as though the different languages had avoided the distinct expression of the bases of the 1st and 2nd persons, a fact in which we may perhaps recognise a kind of euphemism such as is often manifested in languages by a squeamishness which shrinks from pronouncing the 'cgo' and 'tu.' (Schleicher,

p. 657. Anm.)

## TABLE OF THE OLD TEUTONIC PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

# 1st Person.

### SINGULAR.

			SINGULA	.R.		
	1. Gothic.	2. A. 8.	o. s.	4. O. Fris.	5. O. H. Germ.	6. O. Norse.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	mcina mis	ic min me mec, me	ic min mi mic, mi	ik min mi mi	ik (ikka) min mir mik	ek min mer mik
			DUAL.			
Gen. Dat.	vil ugkara ugkis ugkis	wit uncer unc uncit, unc	wit uncero unc unc		†wiz unchar †unch †unch	vit okkar okkr okkr
			PLURAI	-		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	rcis unsara unsis, uns unsis, uns	ve deer (ûre) de ûsic, ûs	roi, roe úser ús ús	eoi ûser de ûs	wir unsar unsik	var (vår) * oss
			2nd Pers	on.		
			SINGULA	R.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	þeina þis	pu pin pe pec, pe	thu thin thi thic, thi	thu thîn thi thi	du, dú din dir dik	þú þín þer þik
			DUAL.			
Gen. Dat.	†jut igqara igqis igqis	git incer inc incit, inc	yit †incero inc inc		†inchar †inch	it, þit ykkar ykkr ykkr
			PLUR <b>A</b> I	<b>.</b>	•	
		ge cówer eów cówic, ców	gi, gc iwar iu iu	i, gi iuwcr iu, io iu, io	ier, ir iwar iu iwik	er, þer yðar yðr yðr

## 3rd Person.

#### SINGULAR.

	I. Gothic.	2. A. S.	Old Saxon.	4. O. Fris.	5. O. H. Germ.	6. O. Norse.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	scina sis	wanting.	(sig, sih, sic) (sig, sih, sic)	sín	sin sik	sin ser sik

### Dual wanting.

#### PLURAL.

NOTE.		l	١ .			١.			_		
Gen.	<b>sc</b> ina										sin
Det.			(sih,	sig.	, sic)				•		8er
Accus.	sík	}	(sih,	sig,	, sic)	١.	•		sih	1	sik

# REMARKS ON THE PRONOUNS IN THE OLD TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

Concerning the primitive forms of the Teutonic pronouns, and the relation of the latter to the pronouns of the cognate languages, we must refer to the remarks we advanced on the proper occasion. (See p. 180 sqq.) Here we have to add a few words only in explanation of some unusual forms which occur in the ancient Teutonic dialects.

Gothic. The nom. dual 2nd person, which does not occur in the documents, has been set down as jut in analogy to the plur. jus, as we find nom. dual 1st person vit analogous to the plur. seis. ju- in jut, jus is the softening of the sing. base pu, and veis the extension of the root vi; the t in jut, vit is the dual termination from tva (Sansk. dva), two. The accus. plur. 1st and 2nd persons are anomalous, which, instead of selecting the forms identical with the dative, should, in analogy to the A.S. dsic, eówic, and the O. H. Germ. unsih, iwih, be in Goth. unsik, izvik.

Old High German. wir and ir are sometimes marked as long on account of the corresponding veis and jus in Gothic; but in later Old High German the i of the nom. plur. wir, ir is short. The gen. plur. and dual ends in er as well as ar. Instead of incer, iwih, there occurs iuwer, iwih, and again for iu and iuwih we find ëu, ëuwih. The dual forms, with the exception of

unchar, which alone occurs in the documents, are Grimm's constructions.

Anglo-Saxon. The most ancient documents only have the accusatives mec, bec, sisic, cówic; in later times the accus. is identical with the dat. me, be, &c. Very remarkable is the accus. dual (2) incit, which occurs in Cædmon, and according to which we may presume an accus. dual (1) uncit. The forms user, us, of Anglo-Saxon and other Low German dialects come from unser, uns, with elision of the n before s. (Concerning the elision in Anglo-Saxon of the n before d, f, and s, see the respective letters.) And for the more ancient user we find in later Anglo-Saxon ure, with transition of s into r. The Gothic spirant j in jut is hardened into the media g in the Saxon git; but in the oblique cases, in Gothic as well as in Saxon, the j is vocalized into i, and in cówic the i is lengthened into the diphthong có. From what we have stated it will become evident that Anglo-Saxon has in some cases of the pronoun more ancient forms than even the Gothic.

Old Norse. The vár, vor, or, of the gen. plur. 1st pers. stand in the same relation to a more ancient ossar or osar, as the A.S. áre to áser. In okkar, ykkar, &c., the n preceding the k, as in Goth. ugkar, A.S. uncer, O. H. Germ. unchar, is assimilated to the k, and thus forms the gemination kk.

All other modifications in the various dialects will easily be explained by a reference to the Phonetic Laws.

# TABLE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN THE MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

1st Person.

### SINGULAR.

				-			
1. M. H. Germ.	2. N. H. G.	3. O. E.	4. N. E.	M. D.	6. Dutch.	7. Swed.	8. Danish.
Nom. ich Gen. min Dat. mir Accus. mich	ich mein mir mich	ich min me me	I mine me me	ic mins mi mi	ik mijns mij mij	jag  mig mig	jeg mig (me) mig (me)
			PLURAL				
Nom. wir Gen. unser Dat. uns Accus. unsich (uns)	wir unser uns	wc ours us	we ours us	wi onser ons	wij onzer ons	vi  088 088	vi vores os

### 2nd Person.

### SINGULAR.

	M. H. G.	2. N. H. G.	O. E.	ч. N. E.	м. D.	6. Dutch.	7. Swed.	8. Danish.
Nom. Gen.	du din	dein	pou hin	thou thine	du dins	singular wanting, plur. used	du 	du 
Dat. Accus	d <del>ir</del> dich	dir dich	be be	thee thee	dî dî	plur. used in its place.	dig dig	dig d <b>i</b> g
				PLUR.				
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus	ir iuwer iu . iuch	fr euer euch euch	yhe yhours yhou yhou	ye. you yours you you	ghî hûwer hû hû	gij uwer u	êder, êr êder, êr	i   eders   eder (jer)   eder (jer)
				3rd Pe	r80n.			
				SINGU	LAR.			
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus	sin . sich	sein sich sich	Wat	ating.	sins	zijns zich zich	sig sig	sig sih
				PLUR	AL.			
Nom. Gen. Dat.	•••	sich	Wat	ating.			sig	ig.:

Note.—The personal pronouns display more tenacity in the preservation of their ancient inflexional forms than any other This is a phenomenon which we observe species of words. among other tribes of languages also. The Romance tongues, which have greatly mutilated and mostly dropped the inflexional forms of their ancient mother, the Latin, in the declension of the noun, were far more conservative in the sphere of the pronoun, where many of the inflexional forms were retained. One of the main characteristics of the modern Teutonic, especially German forms, is the lengthening of the vowels in some of the oblique cases, as mîr, wîr, for the ancient mir, wir; the dropping of final consonants, as the English I for ic (Germ. ich), me for mec (Germ. mich), both forms being used in Anglo-Saxon already. For the ancient genitive form mine, thine, modern English prefers the new formation of me, &c.; German uses the inorganic formation meiner by the side of mein, the latter occurring rarely,

Accus. sik

sich

.. zich

sig

except in poetry. The English me, thee, has lost its force as dative, and consequently designates that relation by means the preposition to, to me, to thee. All other peculiarities the student will be able to explain by applying to the phonetic laws of vowels and consonants.

### ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

## PRONOMINAL BASES.

Sansk. ta, fem. ta (he, this, that), Goth. tha, fem.  $th\delta$ . From the same base are derived the Lat. talis, tantus, tot; further is-te for is-to-s, Gk.  $a\dot{v}$ - $r\dot{o}$ -s,  $o\dot{v}$ - $r\dot{o}$ -s. The Sanskrit demonstratives sa, sd, tat, Goth. sa,  $s\delta$ , pata, Gk.  $\dot{o}$ ,  $\dot{\eta}$ ,  $r\dot{o}$ , where in the masculine and feminine the root ta is replaced by a pronominal root sa, which is used in no other case. sa stands for sa-s, as Gr.  $\delta$  for  $\dot{o}$ -s, the case-sign of the nom. sing. being easily dropped. (Comp. Lat. iste for isto-s, ipse for ipso-s, qui and qui-s.)

Sansk. sya = tya = ta-ya, consisting of ta and a relative base ya and occurring only in the nom. sing., Goth. si, O. H. Germ. siu. This base is of greater importance for Old High German, which derives its definite article from it (diu from tya), while Gothic uses the base ta for that purpose. The O. H. Germ.  $d\ddot{e}r$ ,  $d\ddot{e}s$ , &c., Bopp considers to come from the older forms dyar, dyas. Remnants in Old High German of the base ta we have perhaps

in daz (hoc) and de for die = Sansk. té, Goth. thai.

The base i is used in Latin to form the pronoun of the 3rd pers. sing. is (he), and in Sanskrit for the demonstrative this, and adverbs only, as itas (from here). This base is in Latin lengthened by an inorganic o or u, and weakened into e, and consequently passes from the third into the second declension, using the forms eum, eo, eorum, instead of im, i, ium, while in Gothic it remains intact, as accus. sing. Goth. ina, Lat. eum; accus. plur. Goth. ins, Lat. eos. As in Sanskrit  $\acute{a}$  so is  $\acute{o}$  in Gothic 'the fulcrum of the feminine base' (Bopp), and the base i is thus extended into fem. ijo  $(=i+\acute{o})$ , accus. ija, plur. nom. and accus.  $ij\acute{o}s$ .

Deserving of special mention is the combination of the radical base i with the radical base ta, both having the force of demonstrative pronouns. The pronominal root ta we have met already in the Sansk. ta-t, the neuter of the demonstrative sa; Goth. pa-ta, the neuter of sa, and Gr.  $\tau \delta$  ( $=^{\dagger} \tau \delta$ - $\tau$ ), the neuter of  $\delta$ .

This neuter root, if we may use the term, is employed in most ronouns for the formation of the neuter gender (comp. Lat. i-s, id., qui-s, qui-d, aliu-d, istu-d, quo-d). In Gothic this neuter t has been sheltered as it were by the adoption of the final vowel a, as pa-t-a=prim. ta-t; i-t-a=i-t. (The t is dropped in hva, quod, = prim. ka-t). The importance of this fact will become more evident when we treat on the declension of the substantives. The Gothic relative particle ei is by Grimm derived direct from the base i, by Bopp from the relative particle Sansk. ya, though the latter too admits that the Sansk. relative base ya is to be traced to the demonstrative base i. (Concerning the application in Gothic of this relative suffix ei, see Relative Pronouns.)

The demonstrative base ana with the comparative suffix tara we have in the Sansk. antara (alius), Goth. anpara (alius, alter, secundus), as well as in the Lat. al-ter and al-ius (where the

liquid l replaces the liquid n).

The relative root ya we find in the Sansk. yas, ya, yat, Gr. 8s, 5, the Gothic adjective suffix jis, ja, jata, and, as mentioned

already, probably in the Gothic ei too.

As interrogative bases we may mention three: ka, ku, ki—the two latter owing their existence to the modification of the vowel a of the first. The root ka appears in the prim. ka-s, neut. ka-t (quis, quid; qui, quod); in Greek under the form  $\pi o$ , Ionic  $\kappa o$ , as  $\pi o - \tau \in \pi o - \tau \in \pi o$ ,  $\pi o \circ = \kappa o \circ - o \circ = \kappa o \circ - o \circ \in \pi o$ . Lat. quo, quo-d, &c. The Gothic form shows, in accordance to Grimm's law, initial h for the prim. k, hence Goth. hva (quod). (Comp. O. S. hua-t, O. H. Germ. hua-g.)

The root ku may be recognised in the Sanskrit adverbs ku-tra, where; ku-tas, whence; perhaps too in the Latin cu-jus, cu-i, if these forms are considered as ancient as quo-ius, quo-i; but it is more likely that cu is a later modification of quo, in the same manner as cunde, cubi (ubi), in ali-cunde, ali-cubi of an earlier

quonde, quobi.

The base ki is easily discovered in the Sansk. ki-m (what), the Lat. qni-s, qui-d, and hi-c (-c is the enclitic particle of emphasis ce = Gr.  $\gamma e$ ), where the primitive k has been supplanted by the spirant h, a fact which occurs even in Sanskrit. This base ki, modified according to Grimm's law into hi, appears also in the Gothic himma, hina, adv. hita, but only in certain combinations, as himma daga (hoc die, to-day), whilst Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian use it regularly in the formation of the demonstrative

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For the declension of this demonstrative suffix see under the strong declension of the adjective in Gothic.

pronoun (see below). In Old High German its application is restricted to certain combinations where it appears as the instrumental hiu, e.g. hiu-jāru (M.H. Germ. hiure, N. Germ. heuer), this year, hoc-anno; hiu-tagū (M. H. Germ. hiute, Germ. heute), to-day (comp. hoc-die, hodie); hiu-naht (M. H. Germ. hiunte, Germ. heunt), this night, hac-nocte.

As to the declension of these pronouns in the cognate languages few words must suffice, their inflexional changes in the

Teutonic languages receiving special attention hereafter.

The nom. sing. takes -s, which is the termination of the same case in the declension of nouns. (Concerning the derivation of this inflexional -s, see the declension of nouns.) Thus Sansk. ka-s, who, sa-s (and sa), is, ipse. The case-sign s is dropped in Greek and Gothic:  $\delta = \sigma_0$ , Goth. sa, for  $\sigma_0$ s, Goth. sas. In Latin also the case-sign is wanting in is-te for 'is-to-s and in several other pronouns. The accus sing. has the nominal termination am, except in Gothic, where the m has been changed into n, which is preserved from elision by a final a it has adopted, hence pa-n-a from 'pa-m, and this from the primitive ta-m. The nom. and accus. neut. are formed by the suffix t=ta, a demonstrative root. Examples:—Sansk. ta-t (id), ka-t (quid); in Gr.  $\tau$ 6 for ' $\tau$ 0- $\tau$ 1 it has been dropped. In the Lat. is-tu-d, i-d, qui-d, quo-d, the d stands for the primitive t; and in the Goth. pa-t-a, i-t-a, the t has been preserved by the addition of the vowel a.

The termination of the nom. plur. in its primitive form was  $^{\dagger}ta-i$ , which may be the remnant only of a full form  $^{\dagger}ta-i-sas$  (ta, the demonstrative root, sas the plur. termination as in the declension of nouns). The primitive termination is preserved in its original form only in the Goth. pai, whilst in the Sansk.  $t\vec{e}$ , the Lat. qui, hi=quei, hei=queis, the Gr.  $\tau ol$  (later ol) it appears in weakened and otherwise modified forms. The nom. and accusdual have the same inflexions as the nom., so also the accusplur. The ablative sing., as well as the locative sing. and dative sing., is formed by joining to the stem the suffix sma, which probably arose from the demonstrative  $^{\dagger}sa-ma$ , a base in -ma-from the pronominal root sa (hic). The gen. sing. masc. and neut. originally had the same termination as the noun, that is, Sansk. and prim. tasya, Gr.  $\tau olo$  from  $^{\dagger}\tau oolo$ , Goth. pis: the sy is the remnant of smi=sma (vid. supra).

The gen. plur. has the full termination sám, Sansk. têshám; Greek and Latin the same as the noun; Gothic masc. and neut.  $pi-z\acute{e}$ , fem. pi-zo, i. e. †ti-sám. Dat. sing. prim. and Sansk. tá-smái, from the base tasma-(=ta+sma, vid. supra), which appears also in the Gothic masc. pamma = tasmái, fem. pizai = ti-smy-ái.

The dative and ablative plur. have the same inflexions as the noun, but Gothic increases the stem by adding i (which in Sanskrit is always added in this case to the nominal stems in a masc. and neut.), hence Goth. thai-m.

## TABLE OF OLD TEUTONIC PRONOUNS OF THE 3rd PERSON.

## Masculine.

### SINGULAR.

	Gothic,	Anglo-Saxon.	Old Saxon.	Old Frisian.	O. H. Germ.	Old Norse.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	is is imma ina	he his him (heom) hine	hi, he, hie is imu-a ina	hi, he — (sîn) him hini, -e, -a	ir, ër — (sîn) imu (-o) inan, in	hann hans hanum, honum hann
			PLU	RAL.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	cis izê im ins	hi (hig) hira him hi (hig)	slâ irô im siâ	hia, sê hira, hiara him, hiam hia, sê	sia, siê irê im, in siê	wanting.
			Fema	inine.		
			SING	ULAR.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	sf izle izai ija	heó hire hire hi, (heo, hig)	siu ira iru sia	hiu, sê hiri hiri hia, sê	stu (sie, si) irâ, irê iru, irê sia, sie, si	hon, hun hennar henni hans
			PLU	RAL.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	†ijõe izõ im ijõe	hi (hig) hira him hi (hig)	slâ irô im siâ	hia, s8 hira, hiara him, hiam hia, s8	sið, sie irð im, in sio, sie	wanting.
			Ne	uter.		
			BING	ULAR.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	ila is imma ita	hit his him (heom) hit	is imu(-0) it	hit — (sîn) him hit	iz, ëz is, ës imu (-0) iz, ëz	wanting.
			PLU	RAL.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	ija †izi im †ija	heó hira him heó	siu iro im siu	hia, sô hira, hiara him, hiam hia, sô	siu, sic, si irô im, in siu	wanting.

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#### REMARKS ON THE PRONOUNS OF THE 3rd PERSON.

From the preceding table it will become evident that the different dialects vary considerably in the formation of these pronouns. This variation is owing to the different choice the dialects have made out of the various demonstrative bases which we have just examined. The Gothic chose for all cases, with the exception of one, the demonstrative base i, which it occasionally lengthened into ija; the simple forms in i it has in common with Old High German and Old Saxon, but instead of the lengthened base ija the latter dialects use an altogether different base, the demonstrative si (comp. Sansk. sa, sa, Goth. sa, so, A. S. se, seó, &c.), which occurs, though in a rather mutilated form, in Gothic too, si, fem. of is. But in Old High German and Old Saxon out of this base all the cases are formed which Gothic deduces from ija, the lengthened form of the base i; hence O. H. Germ., O. S. fem. sin, plur. sio, sia. &c. The Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian again have a base of their own out of which they construe their pronouns of the 3rd person. base is the demonstrative ki, which, as we have seen before, stands for the prim. ki, ka, and yields in Latin the demonstrative pronoun hi(c),  $h\alpha(c)$ , ho(c). Old Saxon also makes use of it in the nom. sing. masc. of the 3rd person, whilst Gothic and Old High German use it in but few isolated cases which we have mentioned already. From these forms deviates the Old Norse han- again, which however is used only in the sing. masc. hann, and fem. hon, while all other cases are wanting. Old Frisian and Old High German supply the genitive by the genitive of the pers. pron. of the 3rd pers. sin, whilst, vice versa, we see in later dialects the demonstrative of the 3rd pers. supplying the pers. pronoun of the 3rd person. The word man in Gothic is used merely in the sense of 'homo', but in all other dialects we find it already in the sense of the German 'man', French 'on'.

To recapitulate then, we have in Gothic the demonstrative base i, except in the nom. sing. fem. the demonstrative si.

In Old High German the demonstrative base *i* occurs in all those cases which have in Gothic the simple base *i*, but *si* in all those cases which in Gothic show the lengthened form *ija* of the base *i*. The Old High German gen. sing. masc. is supplied by the gen. of the 3rd pers. pron. sin.

Old Saxon uses the base i in the same cases as Old High German, except the nom. sing. masc. where it prefers the demonstrative hi; the base si is employed as in Old High German.

Anglo-Saxon makes use of the demonstrative hi throughout.

Old Frisian the same as Anglo-Saxon, except in the gen. sing. masc. and neut., where it uses the gen. of the 3rd pers. pron. sin, like Old High German; in the nom. plur. throughout, and in the nom. sing. fem., we find by the side of hi the base si as well.

Old Norse stands isolated in its pronominal forms hann, fem. hon (hun).

# TABLE OF MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC PRONOUNS OF THE 3rd PERSON.

# Masculine.

#### SINGULAR.

	1. I. H. G.	2. N. H. G.	3. Old Engl.	4. N.E.	5. M. Du.	6. Dutch.	7. Swed.	8. Danish,
Nom.	ër	êr	he	he	hi	hij	han	han
Gen. Dat. Accus.	im in	in 1	him him	kim him	hem hem	hem hem	hans honom honom	

#### PLURAL.

Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	eie ir in sie	sie frer <sup>1</sup> fnen	heo, hi, pei hir hem, pam hem, po, pam	they them	si haer hen	kunner hun hun zia	wanting.
Accus.	<b>316</b>	ı sıc	i nem, po, pam	unem	88	zug	

#### Feminine.

#### SINGULAR.

Nom.		<b>4</b>	heo (scho)	she	soe harm	zig	hôn hennes	
Gen. Dat.	ir ir	êr	hire (hir)	her	haer	hâr	henne	hende
Accus.	sie	sie	hire (hir)	her	si	hâr	henne	hende

#### PLURAL.

Nom. Gen. Dat.	sie ir In	sie irer inen	heo, hi, pel hir hem, pam hem, bo, bam	they them	ei haer hen	hârer hâr kâr	wanting.
Accus.	sre	l see	i nem. po. pam	them	<b>31</b>	27/7	1

<sup>1</sup> Common spelling, thm, thn, threr, &c.

#### Newter.

#### SINGULAR.

	1. M. R. G.	N. B. G.	3. Old Engl.	N.B.	M. D.	6. Dutch.	7. Swed.	8. Danish.
Næ. Gæ.	'5 #	<b>6</b>	ů.	ět.	ket	ka		
Pert.		ēm,	- Aim		hem	hem hel	Wat	nting.
Acres	Ġ	æ	ú .	ú	hat	het	l	
			PI	CRAL				
Nam.	<b>s</b> ic	÷.	hen, hi, hei	they	ace	. zii	•	
Gra.	ý-	in	hen hi poi hir	١٠	haar	sij kunner		
Dest.	ės	inca	Acm, bom	them	hen	Awn	WAI	ating.
Acres.	Fiel	=	ārm. þa, þem	. them	300	zij	ł	

# REMARKS ON THE MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC PRONOUNS OF THE 3rd PERSON.

In Old and New English the Anglo-Saxon he (hi) remains throughout; but in Old English we find by the side of the Anglo-Saxon hee a feminine scho, which may have been introduced into English through the Old Saxon sia, or the Old Norse en, and which gains the supremacy over heo in the Middle English and. New English she. The Anglo-Saxon genitives of the sing. his, hire, disappear in Old English. The dative and accusative him, hine, &c.\ begin already in late Anglo-Saxon to be mixed up, and in Old English the dative has expelled the accusative and usurped its place. In order then to distinguish between him, the accusative, and him, the dative, it became necessarv to introduce a new sign for the dative which presented itself in the preposition to. Old English however continued to use him for the dative neuter until New English did away with this dative also and supplanted it by the accusative joined to the dative sign to. The plur. hi and its derivative cases have been supplanted in late Anglo-Saxon already by the demonstrative se (be).

The Middle High German pronoun is the regular derivative of the Old High German, no other changes having taken place than the weakening or apocope of final vowels, as sie, M. H. Germ. fem. nom. sing. for O. H. Germ. sin (sin rare in M. H. Germ.), ir M. H. Germ. gen. plur. for O. H. Germ. irô. These pronominal forms have been more seriously affected in their transition into New High German. All organically short vowels

have been lengthened, hence êr, îm (ihm), în (ihn), for M. H. Germ. êr, îm, în. The dat. plur. N. H. Germ. înen (ihnen) is an inorganic form for the M. H. Germ. in, O. H. Germ. im, in, with which it has no affinity, but it reminds one rather of the O. H. Germ. accus. sing. inan. In the neut. sing. nom. and accus. we write erroneously s for \$\beta\$, in the place of the M. H. Germ. and O. H. Germ. \$\beta\$. The gen. sing. neut. M. H. Germ. es, O. H. Germ. is, es, has disappeared altogether and is, like the gen. sing. masc., replaced by the 3rd pers. pron. or reflective, sein, seiner.

The Middle Dutch dat. plur. hen is still used in New Dutch in the place of the inorganic hun, and gen. plur. haarer instead of hunner.

The Swedish and Danish forms are the direct and organic representatives of the Old Norse.

TABLE OF OLD TEUTONIC POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

	G	othic.		Old I	ligh G	Ol	Old Norse.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Sing. ist and ard	meins	mcina þeina seina	meinata þeinata seinata	dînêr	minu dinu sinu	minaz dinaz sinaz	minn þinn sinn	mîn bîn sîn	mitt pitt sitt
DUAL 1st 2nd		ugkara igqara	ugkar igqar		wanting	g.	okkar    ykkar	okkur ykkur	okkart ykkart
PLUB. 1 st 2 nd	whear	uneara wanting	unsar	unsarêr iwarêr	unsaru iwaru	unearaz iwaraz	vår yðarr	vârr yŏur	vârt yŏart

Note.—The Old High German dialect already in the neut. sing. prefers the undeclined to the declined forms, hence min, din, sin, and these undeclined forms are used in all the dialects except those already mentioned. Hence we have to complete our table as follows:—

	Old 8	axon.		Anglo-Saxon.			Old Frisian.		
Sing. min thin sin			sîn	Ist min uncer	and þín incer	3rd sin	1st min	2nd thin ting.	3rd sin
Dual Plur.	unca Usa	inca iwa		ûser (ûre)			unser (dse)   iuwer   (onse)   iuwer		

#### TABLE OF MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC POSSESSIVE PRONOUPS

					ii ii			Old English.		
Sag. Fine	l H min mater	કર્યો હેંગ દેશવર	3rd #in	Ist mein unser	2nd dein cuer	3rd sein	Ist min our	2nd þin ykoure	kie, kire, kie, þer, þair	

-	I	Middle Dutch.				
Nag. Plus	umis, mentimb, sq	and thine (thy) pourts)	3rd his, her(s), its (their(s))	Ist min ons	2nd din h4	3rd sin

	1	17	Swedish.			Danish.			
Nac.	144. 244	and ar	3rd sire (hear, heur) ,hun, hear)	ist min rår	2nd dis eder	3rd efs	Ist min vor	2nd din eder (jer)	3rd sin

The form six by the side of sizer appears to be the genitive of the pers pron. which encroached upon the original possessive. When se precedes several consonants, as rr, rn, it suffers elision, e.g. sixer for sizere, sirer for sizere. In the most ancient period of Anglo-Saxon we find the possess. sin which later on is replaced by the genitive of the pron. of the 3rd pers. (his, hire, &c.) Old Norse shortens the radical vowel of these possessives whenever the final a assimilates the succeeding consonant, hence masc. mina a minar, neut. mil! = min-!. Instead of var we find also corr, or, and in the oldest documents oss, as ossum (nostro), ossir (nostri), &c.

The possessive sin having originally the signification of the reflective, it gradually lost its possessive signification and was replaced by the genitive of the pronoun of the 3rd person, hence the A. S. his, hire, Engl. his, her, instead of the more ancient sin: and in the same manner the Dutch haar (her) from the gen. hars; further the M. H. Germ. ir, iriu, irz, plur. ire, N. H. Germ. ir and ire (her and their), from the gen. sing. fem. and gen. plur. O. H. Germ. iró. In late Anglo-Saxon already we find in the place of the plur. heore, here, the genitive of the demonstrative peggre, whence the New English possessive their (s); min, hin (mine, thine), are shortened into mi, hi (my, thy), but the complete forms are preserved before a word beginning with a

word, or when they follow after the noun, a rule which may be considered still in force in the poetical style of Modern English. For the neuter form his Modern English introduced its, first spelt its, as a neuter possessive genitive analogous to the possessive

genitive his of he.

The Swedish and Danish possessives require no further explanation when we state that they are the direct derivatives of the Old Norse possessive pronouns. Their genders also, Sw. min, mins, mitt, Dan. min, mins, mit, will be easily accounted for by a reference to the O. N. mins (=min-r) and mitt (=min-t), which we have just examined. In Danish the neuter gender of the 3rd person, as also its plural in all genders, are supplied by the

demonstrative pronoun den, det, plur. de.

The New Teutonic pronouns take the inflexions of the strong declension of the adjective, where they are used as possessive adjectives, as Germ. mein, meine, mein, gen. meines, meiner, meines; Dutch mijn, mijne, mijn, gen. mijns, mijner, mijns; and in the same manner Sw. min, mina, mitt, Dan. min, mine, mit. But where they are used as substantives, and then preceded by the article, they take the inflexions of the weak declension, as Germ. der meine, or meinige, Dutch de mijne, &c., &c.

#### **DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.**

#### FIRST DEMONSTRATIVE (18).

#### Masculine.

#### SINGULAR.

	ı. Sanskr.	3. Gothic.	3. AngSax.	0. N.	5. Old Saxon.	6. O. Fris.	O. H. Germ.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr.	sa) tasya tasmai tam tina	sa þis þamma þana þi	ee bäs bam bone by, bė	sa pess peim pans	thie, the, se thies thes themu, thiem thana, than. thê, thiu	this thes tham, tha thene	dër, dë, thi dës dëmu dën diu, du
				PLURA	L.		
Nom. Gen. Dat.	tê têshêm têbhya <u>ḥ</u> tâm	þai þízé þaim	þa þara, þära þâm, þæm þa	þeir   þeirra   þeim   bu	thia, thie, the thero thiem, thêm thia, thie	tha thera thâm, thâ tha	diê. diâ, dê dëro diêm, dêm diê, diâ, dê

#### Peminine.

#### SINGULAR.

	1. Sanskr.	Gothic.	3. A. 8.	0. N.	Old Saxon.	6. O. Fris.	7. O. H. Gam.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	så taryåk taryal tåm	ed pizde pizae pizae	sed þäre þäre þa	si þeirrar þeirri þa	thin, the thera, -u thera, -u thia, the	thiu there there tha	diu, dëo, de dëra, dëru dëru, dëra dia, die, dë
				PLUR	AI.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	táķ tásam tábhyaķ táķ	þás þizð þaim þás	þa Þara Þám Þa	par   peirra   peim   par	thia, the thero thim thia	tha thera tham, thâ tha	dio, dia, di dëro diim, dim dio, dia, di
				Neut	er.		
				SINGU	LAR,		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr.	tat tarya tarmai tat téna	þata þis þamma þata þé	þät þäs þam þät þý, þi	pat   pess   pri   pat	that, the thas themu, theim that thiu, thio	thet thes tham, tha thet thiu	daş dös dömu daş diu, du
				PLUR	AL.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	tâni têshâm têbhyaḥ tâni	þó þisé þaim þó	þa þara þám þa	þau þeirra þeim þau	thiu, thia thero thêm thiu, thia	tha thera thâm, tha tha	diu, die dëro diêm, dêm diu, die

We have to deal with three demonstratives which, according to their meaning, answer to the Lat. is, hic, and ille, Gr. auros, ouros, and exerros. The first of these is derived from the demonstrative base ta, concerning which we must refer the student to preceding paragraphs. The Gothic sa, so, pata, and its declension will, after our previous remarks, offer no difficulties to the student. As to the corresponding forms in O. H. Germ. der, diu, daz, the masc. de-r might be explained so that de represents the primitive ta (O. H. Germ. d for Sansk. t according to Grimm's law, and e the weakening of a), and r is the terminational s, so that the analogous form of O. H. Germ. der would be Goth. bis. But as to the O. H. Germ. fem. diu we are inclined with Bopp to refer it to the double base, Sansk. sya = tya = ta-ya, consisting of the demonstrative ta and the relative base ya, so that the O. H. Germ. diu stands for an ancient tya. The O. H.

tion of this permoun, using the base or for the new one and feen, and the last to for all other cases. While the other and German dialects. The Old High German, preise the Tot a inthe nome sing, mast, and fent, as well to that I I see: I I'm this feem, their conventions to the L. E. Seem, we are the logon to which in Govine would be the lent pink. Da Norm again goes with Guiller and Angu-Suxus and forms the most ing, mase, and fem, of and of respectively that is the mase mient documents we find of 11 will gentless. Bestite to De None is the use of the instruments, in it the use size near instead of point, which would be analogue to the extre- used a the other dialocae; furnise me can one may year the ten gen, sing, beaver, dat, sing ber. But her beren when the a and the generation or more the Dil None conser where from the rest.

In the Old Temonic disease arrestly this menumerative is used as the definite article.

TABLE OF DESIGNATIVE PROBUTE IF THE MUDICAL AND NEW TEXTIFIED DELICATES.

# Kornine.

#### STRUCTURE.

	LHG.	X.H Cor.	ů.	N žag.	#Ĵn	{ !-s ban	- where	Lennan
	in im	ir ia, iaus ia. ia	il 16	tin tear	tie tes tes tes	to: See to: See to: ties to ties	Sees Conse Cons Sees	ione ione ion
				Parla				
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acces.		đư đơ. ảơm đơ. đư				er rio re rroy res rios res rios	ل انجاب انجا ان	t ting tra tr
				Femmes	٠			
				53.07.Z	ı.			
Gen.	4	चैन बेक्ट, वेटलक चेक्ट बेस	-	•	to top top tid	to tes top test top <b>t</b> est to the	Coo Cood Coo Coo Coo	Ac. Los Ace Ace

#### PLURAL.

								. 6
	1. 4. H.G.	2. N. H. Ger.	0.E.	N. Engl.	5. M. Du.	6. New Dutch.	7. Swedish.	8. Danish,
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	die der den die	die der, deren den die	þe, þat	the, that	die der den die	de, die der, dier den, dien de, die	de dêras dem de	de dêres dem de
				Neute	r.			
				SINGULA	LR.			
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	daş des dem daş	das des, dessen dem das	::	:: ::	dat des den dat	(het) dat des, diens den, dien (het) dat	det dets, dess det det	det dets det det
				PLURA	L.			
Nom. Gen. Dat.	diu der den	d <b>ie</b> der, deren den	::		die der den	de, die der, dier den, dien	de dêras dem	de déres dem

#### REMARKS ON THE NEW TEUTONIC DRMONSTRATIVES.

This demonstrative in the Middle and New Teutonic dialects continues to be used as the definite article. But New High German and New Dutch develope different forms, where it has a demonstrative force. Dutch indeed has a separate declension for the article and the demonstrative pronoun, though both are equally derived from the Middle Dutch die, die, dat, so that the Dutch article is de, de (het), the demonstrative proper die, die, dat. The article being without a neuter, this gender had to be supplied by the neuter (het) of the personal pronoun. In German the article and the demonstrative pronoun have the same forms throughout, with the exception of the genitives, where the demonstrative assumes masc. and neut. dessen by the side of des, fem. and plur. deren by the side of der. The article. moreover, is unaccented, while the demonstrative always has an emphatic accent. But all these distinctions are rather arbitrary, and we might designate the article and the demonstrative pronoun as identical.

As to the Danish and Swedish article we shall have to devote to this subject a separate chapter hereafter.

The fate of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative on its course through Old English and New English deserves a more detailed notice. In late Anglo-Saxon the nominatives se and seó disappear, and the use of the pronoun as definite article assists much in weakening and destroying its inflexional forms. In order to give a notion of the gradual dissolution of the declen-

sion we subjoin the different inflexional forms in late Anglo-

# SINGULAR. Masculine. Nom. pe, pa Gem. peze, pas, pes, pess, pie, pe Dat. pan, pon, pane, pone, pome, pense, pene, pane, pene, pe

#### PLURAL.

Nom. paie, pæle, po, pe Gen. pare, pere Dat. pan, pon, pen, pane, pan, peon Accus. pale, po, pe

From this table it will become evident how the undeclinable be invaded the declension and gradually supplanted all the inflexional forms; but it was in Old English that the final break up took place, and the havoc which at that period was made in all the grammatical forms of the language can nowhere be better observed than in the case of this pronoun, The plural nom. pai, bei, and accus. paim, pem, are detached altogether from the demonstrative to which they belonged, and enlisted among the personal pronouns. The sing. be, bat, plur. ba, bo, retain their position as demonstratives, so that in combination with prepositions they are used to supply all cases, e.g. of bo, of ba (corum), to bo, to ba (iis). When used as the definite article this pronoun in Old English simply sounds be, and this be is undeclinable. Though we find occasionally inflexional forms of this be, as for instance the accus. pen, the total absence of all consciousness of its inflexional value is proved by the fact that this accusative form is used for the nominative case. The instrumental pe finds its place before comparatives.

The Middle English preserves the Old English forms, so that thei and them are personal pronouns; the sing. that and the plur. tho remain demonstrative; the undeclinable article is the, and the instrumental the keeps its position before comparatives.

The same relation we find in New English: they and them are personal pronouns, that and those remain demonstrative, the latter being derived from tho by the addition of the plural s and final e to indicate the length of the radical vowel. The undeclinable article is the, and the instrumental the continues to be used before comparatives, as 'the sooner the better.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Koch, i. p. 475.

# Second Demonstrative (hic).

# Masculine.

#### SINGULAR.

	1. A. 8.	2. Old Saxon.	3. Old Frisian.	Old Norse.	5. O. H. Germ.
Nom.	be-s	thë-se	this, thes	bes-si	di-ser
Gen.	bises	thësas	thisses	bessa	dieses
Dat.	bisum	thesumu	thissa	bessum	desense
Accus.	piene	thësan	[thisne, thesne]		disan
			PLURAL.		
Nom.	þås	thësa	thisse, thesse	bessir	disê (desê)
Gen.	þissa	thesaro	thessera	þessara	desero (dirro)
Dat.	þisum	thësun	thisse, thesse	þessum.	desêm
Accus.	þâs	thësa	thisse	pessa	desé (disé)
			Feminine.		
			SINGULAR.		
Nom.	peó-s	thësu (thius)	thiu-s	pes-si	di-su (di-siu)
Gen.	pisse	thësara	thisse	þessarar (þessar)	desera
Dat.	piese	thësaru	thisse	þessari (þessi)	de <b>s</b> eru
Accus.	þas	thësa	thisse	pessa.	diea
			PLURAL,		
Nom.	þâs	thëra	thisse	þessar	dise (des6)
Gen.	þissa	thësaro	thessera	þe <b>s</b> sara	desero (dis ro)
Dat.	þ <b>i</b> sum	thësun	thisse	þessum	derêm
Accus.	þas	thësa	thisse	þessar	desô (dise)
			Neuter.		
			SINGULAR.		
Nom.	p1-8	thi t	thi-t	pet-ta	di-z (di-tzi)
Gen.	pises	thësa <b>s</b>	thisses	pessa	disses
Dat.	þisu m	thesumu	thissa.	bessu .	desemu
Accus.	þis	thit	thit	þetta	diz (di-tzi)
Inst.	þeús	thiu <b>s</b>		l	desju
			PLURAL.		
Nom.	þ <b>ás</b>	thius	thisse	þessi	disiu
Gen.	þissa	thësaro	thessera	pessara	desero
Dat.	þisum	thësun	thisse	pessum.	desém
Accus.	þâs	thius	thisse	pessi	disiu
		•			

The demonstrative in Gothic receives emphatic force by adding to the simple pronouns sa, so, pata, the suffix uh, which drops its vowel after monosyllabic forms or such as end in a long vowel; which however retains its u and absorbs the preceding

vowel, if it follows upon bi-syllabic forms ending in a short vowel: hence Goth. sa-h (=sa-uh), sō-h, þat-uh (hic, hæc, hoc), gen. þiz-uh, þizōz-uh, þiz-uh, &c. In the other dialects this demonstrative is formed out of two distinct bases, tya, the extension of the demonstrative root ta, and its relative base sya, so that tya-sya would answer to O. H. Germ. di-ser, di-su, di-z, A. S. þe-s, þeō-s, þi-s, O. N. þessi, þetta. In O. N. þe-t, the t is organic for O. H. Germ. z in di-z; the O. H. Germ. d organic for the low Germ. th. The A. S. gen. sing. fem. and gen. plur. pisse and þissa are inorganic forms standing for þisre, þisra (r assimilated to the preceding s). The weak forms þessi, þessa, in Old Norse nom. and gen. sing. are unexpected, as are also the terminations -arar, -ari, -ara, for -rar, -ri, -ra. This demonstrative assumes in the Middle and New Teutonic dialects the following forms:—

M. H.	Germ	.	N.	H. Ger	m.	O. En	g. N	.Eng.	Mid	ldle I	outch.
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.				Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
lirre lises liseme lisen	disiu dirre dirre dise	diz dises diseme diz	diser¹ dises disem disen	dîser dîser	dises 1 dises disem dises	þia, þa		this	dese deses desen desen	dese desre desre dese	dit (dit deses desen dit
lioe lirre lioen lioe	dise dirre disen dise	disiu dirre disen disiu		dise diser disen dise		pise, po	286	these		dese deser dese dese	
	Ne	w Du	tch.		Swed	lish.		:	Danis	h.	_
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc	.   F	em.	Veut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut	-, •
Sing. Nom Gen. Dat. Acc.	deze dezes dezen dezen	deze dezer dezer deze	dit dezes dezen dit	denna dennas denna denna	den den den den	nas d na d	etta ettas etta etta	denne dennes denne denne	denne denne denne denne	dette dette dette dette	•
PLUR. Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc.		deze dezer dezen deze	   	desse desses dessa dessa	des des des	sa d	C88C C88C8 C88G C88C		disse disse disse disse	1	

<sup>1</sup> Common spelling, dieser, diese, &c.

Concerning the German and Dutch pronouns which are regularly derived from Old High German and Middle Dutch we have no special remarks to make. The Swedish and Danish pronouns however in the singular of the masculine and feminine are inorganic forms, probably derived from the simple pronoun den, whilst the neuter detta, dette, may be traced to the O. N. petta, or also to the simple pronoun det. The plural is regularly formed after the O. N. pessi.

The Anglo-Saxon demonstrative is in Old English already stripped of all inflexions, and the only remains of the old declension are the singular forms pis, and the plural pes, pise, pese, which in Middle English are sing. this, plur. thise, these, these, theire. The genitive singular occurring in Wyclfie is remark-

able: pisis fader, pater ejus; N. Engl. this, plur. these.

# THIRD DEMONSTRATIVE (ille).

This demonstrative is represented only in Gothic, High German, and Old Norse, while the Saxon and the Frisian dialects are deprived of it. In Gothic and Old High German this pronoun is declined after the strong adjective declension, in Old Norse it follows the declension of the numeral einn, ein, eitt; hence Goth. jain-s, jain-a, jain ata, O. H. Germ. gen-er, gen-u, gen-az, M. H. Germ. jener, jeneu, jenez, N. H. Germ. jener, jene, jenes, Dutch gene (commonly weak declension de gene); from it we have the Anglo-Saxon adverb geond (illic, illuc), whence the Engl. yon, yond, yonder. The Old Norse forms are:—

Sing	ULAR.	1		PLU	RAL.	
Masc. Nom. in-n (= in-r) Gen. in-s, &c.	in-nar,	Neut.  it-t (in = it)  in-s. kc.	Nom. in Gen. in		Fem. in-ar, in-na,	Neut. in inna

Instead of inn, in, itt, we also meet enn, en, ett, and in later documents always hinn, hin, hitt. From this pronoun are derived the Swed. and Dan. hin, hin, hint, plur. hine, which are used in the nominative only. When employed as pronominal adjectives, they take, like other demonstratives, the genitive sign s. It is very peculiar that the modern Scandinavian dialects here reject the Old Norse gemination (hitt) which in other words they commonly adopt, and render the neuter in its primitive form (hin-t).

# The Suffixed Article in the Scandinavian Languages.

This Old Norse pronoun is of more than common interest, because it has first been used as the suffixed article, which is a characteristic feature of the Scandinavian languages up to the present day. The pronoun inn, in, itt, in its function as article may precede the noun or follow after it-form an appendage or suffix to it. In the latter case both the noun and pronoun are declined, and the i or w of the suffixed pronoun is incapable of susing Umlant. In this combination the following rules are obeyed: (1) the declension of the noun remains unaltered, except that in the dative plural -um with -inum becomes -unum (not -uminum); (2) the radical vowel of the pronoun is always absorbed by the final vowel of the noun, but it remains where the noun ends in a consonant, except nom. plur. masc., and nom. and accus. plur. fem., where the pronominal vowel is also dropped, \* dagarnir for dagar-inir, giafarnar for giafar-inar. We subjoin some examples for the sake of illustrating our remarks.

1	Without the	Article.	ı	With the A	rticle
Nom. Gen. Dat.	Sing. fat- fat-s fat-i	Plun. föt- fat-a föt-um	Nom. Gen. Dat.	Sing. fat-it fats-ins fati-nu	PLUR. föt-in fata-nna fötu-num
Accus.	fat-	föt	Accus.	fat-it	föt-in

#### Weak Declension.

Theme: hanan (cock).

With the Article.

Without the Article.

			t		
Nom.	Sing.	PLUR.		Sing.	PLUR.
NOOD.	han-i	han-ar	Nom.	hani-nn	hanar-nir
Gen.	han-a	han-a	Gen.	hana-ns	hana-nna
Det.	kan-a	hön-um	Dat.	hana-num	hönu-num
Accus.	han-a	kan-a	Accus.	hana-nn	hana-na

#### Strong Declension.

Theme: giafa (gift).

1	Without the	Article.	With the Article.				
Nom. Gen. Det. Accus.	Sing. giöf- giaf-ar giöf-u giöf	PLUR. giaf-ar giaf-a giöf-um giaf-ar	Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. giöf-in giafar-innar giöf-inni giöf-inna	PLUR. giafar-nar giafa-nna giöfu-num giafar-nar.		

In the same manner the modern Scandinavian languages wiffix the definite article to its respective noun, Swedish and

Danish on for the massuline and feminine gender, of for the neuter; plural Swed. as or so fix one, one: Dan. ac (for one). The genitives are one, etc., nee, see; all other cases are like the nominatives. on is of course the O. N. iss., is; of the O. N. it. A few examples may suffice:—

#### Swedish.

#### SOUTH

N. D. A. Imong-en, the king Gen. Immungens, of the king

N. D. A. hirdet, the table Gen. hirdets, of the table

N. D. A. stjern-en, the star Gen. stjernans, of the star

#### Pursus.

immorres, the kings

ieroien, the tables juriens, of the tables

spersorms, the stars spersorms, of the stars.

#### Denish.

#### STYGULAR.

N. D. A. long-en, the king Gen. longens, of the king

N. D. A. Ajacrt-et, the heart Gen. Ajacrtets. of the heart

# PLUBAL

honger-ne, the kings honger-ver, of the kings

Ajacrter-ne, the hearts Ajacrter-nes, of the hearts.

#### OTHER DEMONSTRATIVES.

Another demonstrative which we have already noticed is the base hi, occurring in the Latin hic and in several Teutonic forms. Most of the Low German dialects have used this base to make up the whole (Anglo-Saxon) or part (Old Saxon, Old Frisian) of their pronominal cases of the 3rd person, while Gothic and Old High German show merely a few cases formed of this base, and these even are used merely with reference to time: as dat. masc. and neut. himma, e.g. himma daga, (on) this day, to-day; fram himma (nu), from now, henceforth; accus. masc. hima, e.g. und hina dag, unto this day; accus. neut. hita, e.g. und hita (nu), until now. Old High German has besides a mutilated form of the accusative in hi-naht, from hia naht, this night, to-night (whence the M. H. Germ. hinte, N. H. Germ. heunt, to-night), preserved only the instrumental hiu in the following adverbial compounds: hiu-tu or hiu-to, from hiu tagu, this day, to-day; whence the M. H. Germ. hiute, N. H. Germ. hente, to-day; hiu-ru or hiu-ro, from hiu jaru, this year; whence the M. H. Germ. hiure, N. H. Germ. heuer-forms which are partly preserved in the Saxon dialects too, as A. S. heodüg, this day, to-day, O. S. hiu-du, &c.

The Goth, sama, fem. samó, neut. samó, theme saman (ipse, ò

aciτόs), follows the weak declension; so does the Old High German samo, fem. sama, neut. sama, which rarely occurs (hence N.H. Germ. samt, together, zu-sammen, &c.), and the O.N. sami, fem. sama, neut. sama; the latter however may also be inflected after the strong declension sam-r, sön, sant (hence Sw. samma, Dan. samme, gen. sammes, the same). The Anglo-Saxon dialect does not possess this word, except as an adverb same, together (whence the Engl. same), and its place as a pronoun is supplied by yloa, fem. and neut. ylce, which occurs in combination with the demonstrative se, seó, μat, as se ylca, μat ylce (the same). Compounds of this are μflic (such) and swilc (such), only the latter being preserved in English, for it is from this pronoun that we have the O. Engl. swilk, M. Engl. swiche, suche, N. Engl. such.

The Goth. silba, fem. and neut. silbó, theme silban (ipse, aŭrós), goes after the weak declension; the Old High German may be strong or weak, selpér, selpiu, selpaz, and selpo, selpa, selpa; in Old Saxon the weak form selbo, selba, selba, is more common than the strong self, while, vice versa, in Anglo-Saxon the strong self is more frequent than the weak selfa; Old Norse may be strong, sialf-r, sialf, sialf-t, or weak, sialfi, sialfa, sialfa. From these are derived the M. H. Germ. selp, gen. selbes (ipse) and the N. H. Germ. der selbe, which go after the weak declension and the undeclinable selbst, the O. Engl. and M. Engl. silf, silue, selue, self, N. Engl. self, Sw. sjelfva, sjelf.

# INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

There are different interrogative pronouns for the different questions (1) quis? (2) uter? (3) quis eorum? (4) qualis? or, to express (1) a question after a person or thing in general; (2) after one out of two persons or things; (3) after one out of several or many persons or things; (4) after the kind or quality of a person or thing.

# TABLE OF INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

# 1. Quie? (Sansk. kas.)

# i. Old Teutonic.

# SINGULAR.

	Ge	thic.		Ang.	-Sax.	Old Sexon.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Neut.	1	lasc.	Neut.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Intr.	hva·s hvis hvamma hvana	hvó †hraizôs †hval hvô	hra hvis hvamma hva hvå	kva kväs kvam kvone	hvät hväs hvam hvät hvø	Aue Aues Aues Aues		huat huës huemu huat huiu
	Old	l Frisia	n.	О. Н	. Gerr	n.	Old N	orse.

	Old Fri	sian.	0. H. G	Old Norse.		
	Masc.	Neut.	Masc.	Neut.	Masc.	Neut.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Intr.	hwa hwammes hwam hwane, hwene	hwet hwammes hwam hwet	hwe-r hwës hwemu hwenan, hwen		kva-r kvess kveim kvann	

#### PLURAL deest.

# ii. Middle and New Teutonic.

#### SINGULAR.

M. H. Germ.		rm.	N. H. Germ.		Old En	N. Engl.		
	Masc.	Neut.	Masc.	Neut.	Masc.	Neut.	Masc.	Neut.
Nom. Gen. Dat.	icer icer icen	vaz ves	wer wessen	was was	wha, who whos, wos	what, wat	who whose	echat
Accus. Intr.		tein	10en	was	whom (to) wham, whom	what	(to)	what

Middle Dutch.			New Dutch.			Swedi	sh.	Danish.	
	Masc.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut	Masc.	Neut.	Masc.	Neut.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	eric wics wich wich	wat wics wien	wiens wiens wien	wier		(hô) hrem (hrars) hrems hrem hrem		(hró) hrem (hris)hrems hrem hrem	

Note.—The New High German genitive wessen is an inorganic extension of the old wes.

In Old English the dative and accusative become identical,

and the former therefore adopts the dative sign to.

The New Dutch fem. form wie, wier, is a very remarkable sign of grammatical vitality in a modern language, this form being altogether wanting in Middle Dutch. The gen. wiens also for the Middle Dutch wies is an inorganic form developed out of the accus. wien with the genitive sign s.

The Swedish and Danish dialects have rejected the organic forms of the nom. gen. sing. masc., and instead of these have adopted the accus. Avem as nominative, and out of this formed

the genitive by the case-sign s.

# 2. Uter?

O. H. Gothic there occurs only the nom. masc. and neut. kvapar; H. Germ. kwedarêr, kwedaru, kwedaraz, is declined like an adjective, as well as the O.S. kuedar, A.S. kväder. Old Norse nom. kvar-r, kvar, kvar-t, gen. kvar-s, kvar-rar, kvar-s, &c. There on we find the form kvorr, kvort, for the same pronounge German and English weder, wether, are used only as conctions, and of course undeclinable.

# 3. Quis eorum? (who out of many?)

The Goth. hvarjis, hvarjata, is declined as an adjective. No ther dialect possesses the same word except Old Norse, where it hows the forms, nom. hver-r, hver, hver-t, gen. hvers, hverrar, vers, &c., &c. It appears that from this gen. hvers is derived the obsolete Sw. gen. hvars.

# 4. Qualis?

Goth. hvéleiks, hvéleika, hvélaikata; O. H. Germ. hwiolihh-ér, hwelihher (welér), fem. -iu, neut. -az; O. S. huilíc, A. S. hwilc (hwylc), O. N. hvílík-r, Fris. hwelk (hwek), M. H. Germ. welcher (wel, gen. wels, accus. weln, &c.), N. H. Germ. welcher, M. Dutch welke, N. Dutch welke, O. Engl. whylc, whilke, wuch, woch, wich, M. Engl. whiche, N. Engl. which (Scotch whilk), Sw. and Dan. hvilken.

Note.—All these are declined as adjectives.

## BELLITTE FRINCINS

There is a first the Third the administration and emission modern, service of the relative connexion Goth w. M. Eng. v & H. Germ, dev. dv., dvg. S. S. see the Demonstra-tive and qualis.

The Green wee, was, Sw.

Let used in a relative the modern that the state of the modern Fig. civil Dutch welke, welk, Sv 101 Ter control of 17 1 mere particle, or (4) by First Community of the interior Left formula.

The mass state in later a mail a source the ancient Teutonic the enter the entertainty of the reset as a relative suffix in the same prin minal base as the in strict of the attended to personal or in a series at the attended to these pro-The second of the second of t - in qua, quod,

The Sax is the second of the s

tive sense, namely O.S. ... A.S. be, the undeclinable form of the demonstrative pron un s. s. bir; hence A.S. ik be, I who, ego qui; be be, tu qui. Frequently we find this particle joined to the demonstrative pronoun, and like the Gothic ei imative force, as pam pe, cui, to which; se pe, De.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Comp. p. 191.

In the same manner the Frisian dialect uses the particles ther and the; the Old Norse, the particle er, later on sem as well, which may express all cases except the genitive; e.g. pann er, quem; peim er, cui; sa er, qui: a mere s also added to the demonstrative sa, sa, pata, may express relative connexion, e.g. sa-s, qui; sa-s, quæ; paz=pat-s, quod; pann-s, quem; peim-s, cui. This s is nothing but the remainder of the particle er in its more ancient form es.

# INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. Goth. sum-s, sum-a, sum-ata (sum), answers to the Greek indefinite  $\tau$ (s,  $\tau$ (; it may or may not be combined with the particle uh without altering its sense. O. H. Germ. sumér, sumiu, sumaz, O. S. sum, A. S. sum, O. Fris. sum, O. N. sum-r, O. Engl. sum, summe, som, some, N. Engl. some; Dan. somt, plur. somme, some people; Dutch sommige, several. It goes throughout after the strong declension of the adjectives. The meaning in the Low German dialects of this pronoun added to cardinal numerals is explained under the chapter of Numerals.

2. The Goth. man, which is used only in the sense of 'homo,' acquires, when preceded by the negation ni, and sometimes followed by the suffix hun, the negative sense of 'nemo' (= ne homo), e.g. ni manna, or ni manna-hun (nemo), gen. ni mans-hun, &c. The O. H. Germ. éo-man, ie-man, is formed with the adverbial accusative io, éo, answering to the Goth. div from aivs (time), as div (ever), ni aiv (never); éo-man then would mean 'ever a man,' and ni or no-éoman, 'never a man;' M. H. Germ. iaman, iemen; niaman, niemen; N. H. Germ. je-mand (d inorganic, j inorganic for i) and nie-mand, ullus and nullus,

In the modern Teutonic dialects man is of frequent use as an indefinite pronoun of the 3rd person, in its sense answering to the French 'on'. Thus the Germ. man sagt (on dit), Sw. man sade så (on l'a dit). (Swedish may use Dé instead of man: Dé sade så). Dan. man taler meget derom, on parle beaucoup de cela. It is used only in the nominative, the oblique cases being supplied in German by eines, einem, ein, in Swedish and Danish by En, gen. Ens.

3. Goth. ains is not used as an indefinite pronoun, but when the suffix hun is added to it, it assumes the meaning 'ullus,' as ains-hun, fem. ainó-hun, neut. ain-hun, gen. ainis-hun, ainaizós-hun, dat. ainummé-hun, &c. In Old High German einér, einiu, einas, is used in the sense of 'quidam'; derived from this is

einigér-u-az, aliquis; dih-ein, doh-ein, ullus; nih-ein, noh-ein, nullus. So also O.S. nig-én, neg-én, ni-en, nullus; A.S. án, ullus, one; n-án, nullus, none; A.S. ænig, ullus; n-ænig, nullus; O.N. ein-n, ullus; n-ein-n, nullus. Compare the Germ. ein, k-ein, n-ein, the Engl. one, n-one; and from A.S. ænig, the O.E. and M.E. ony, any, N.Eng. any. The Old Norse suffix gi also has a negative force like the particle ni, ne, hence O.N. ein-gi, nullus, and in the same manner svá-gi, ita non; ülfr, wolf; ülf-gi, no wolf; sialf, ipsa; sialf-gi, ipsa non. With verbs Old Norse used the suffix -a, -at, or -t, as skal-a, he shall not; verðr-at (Germ. er wird nicht), em-k-at for ek am at, I am not.

4. The Old High German as well as Low German wiht (thing, res), with the prefix éo, is used in the sense of 'aliquid,' éo-wiht (quelquechose, something), and with the negation néowiht, ni-wiht (nothing, nihil). Hence the M. H. Germ. iht (something), negative niht, N. H. Germ. icht (obs.) nicht (not), and nichts (nothing); O. S. io-wiht (aliquid), nio-wiht (nihil); A. S. á-wiht (aliquid), n-á-wiht (nihil). Hence the Anglo-Saxon vocalized forms auht, nauht, aht, naht, the O. Engl. ouht, nouht, ozt, nozt, M. Engl. ought, nought, ouzt, nouzt, N. Engl. aught, naught.

Many indefinite pronouns are compounds of pronouns (chiefly the interrogatives) with particles or other words. Thus we have with the Goth. leik, O. H. Germ. lih, A. S. lic (original meaning 'flesh,' 'body'; hence 'stature', 'form', shape' &c.) the compounds, Goth. sva-leiks, O. H. Germ. sulih, solih, A. S. þ\$-lic and swilc (=swi-lic, swa-lic), and O. N. þvilikr, s-likr (=svá-likr). Compare Germ. solch-er, -e, -es, O. Engl. swilk, such, M. Engl. swiche, suche, N. Engl. such (Scotch sic, sicken, &c.). All other compounds, ancient and modern, find their explanation in the respective dictionaries.

# NUMERALS.

# CARDINALS.

# TABLE OF CARDINAL NUMERALS IN THE COGNATE LANGUAGES.

_	<del>,                                      </del>				
No.	1. Primitive.	2. Sanskrit.	3. Greek.	4. Latin.	5. Gothic.
1	ai-na-	êka-	εĪs, ἔν, f. μία	ū-no, Old oi-no-	ai na
2	dua-, dea-	dva-	δύο-	duo	tva-
8	tri-	tri-	τρι- (τρεῖs, τρία)	tri-	thri-
4	katvar- chatvár, cha		τετταρ-, τεσ- σαρ-εз	quatuor-	fidvôr-
5	kanban	pánchan	πέντε (πέμπε)	quinque	fimf
6	kevaks	shash	έξ (Féξ)	sex	saihs
7	saptan-	sáptan-	én rá	septem.	sib un
8	aktu	askian-	διετώ	octo	ahtau
9	navan-	návan-	lvvéa	novem	niun
10	dakan-	dá <b>san</b>	δέκα	decem	taihu <b>n</b>
11		êkâ-da <b>s</b> an	ёv-дека	un-decim	ain-lif
12	duâ dakan	dvâ-da <b>s</b> an	δώ-δεκα	duo-decim	tva-lif
14		chátur-da <b>s</b> an	теобарез-каі- бека	quatuor-decim	fidvôr-taihun
20		risáti	είκοσι	viginti	tvai-tigjus
40		chatvâr <b>i</b> sát	τετταράκοντα	quadraginta	· ·
60	1	shash(i	έξήκοντα	sexaginta	saihs-tigu-
70		saptatí	έβδομήκοντα	septuaginta	sibun-tehund
100	kan-ta-(m)	śałá	έκατό-(ν)	centum	hunda-
200	, ,	dve sate (dvisa- tam)	διακόσιο(ι)	ducenti	tva-hunda
300		trîni satâni (tri satam)	τριακόσιο(ι)	trecenti	trija-hunda
400		chatvári satání (chatuksatam)		quadringenti	(1)
500		pañchasatâni (pañchasatam)		quingents	fimf-h <b>unda</b>
1000		dasa satâni (da- sasatî)	χιλίο(ι)	mille	thusundja- (N. i)

# REMARKS ON THE CARDINAL NUMERALS IN THE COGNATE LANGUAGES.

#### one

There is in the different Aryan languages a great variety of stems for the number 'one,' but all are formed from the root i, which in the primitive language may have been represented by the word ai-na-. In Sanskrit the word êka- shows the pronominal root i and the suffix or pronominal root ka. The Greek els (= $\epsilon \nu$ -s), neut.  $\epsilon \nu$ , gen.  $\epsilon \nu$ -os, fem.  $\mu ia$ , has the base  $\epsilon \nu$ - from the primitive form san = sam (comp. Lat. sim-plex, sem-el, singuli), contained in the Sansk. sama (similis; a superlative of the demonstrative pronominal base sa-). This view is corroborated by the feminine form  $\mu la$  (for ' $\mu la = sm-ya = smya$ , a feminine base in ya) which presupposes a base sa-mya, as &v-, a base sa-nfrom one and the same root sa. Latin, in its more ancient form oi-no, the later *u*-no- shows clearly the primitive form ai-na-, and is, in the same manner as the Sanskrit pronominal base é-na-, formed from the pronominal root i with the suffix na. Teutonic dialects have cultivated a form which is identical with the Latin, Engl. one, Germ. ein, A. S. an being represented by the Goth. ains, the theme of which is Ai-na-.

The expression of the number 'one' in the following Teutonic words is peculiar:—Goth. haihs, one-eyed; hanfs, one-handed; halls, halt, one-footed, lame; halls, half. In all these words the number 'one' is expressed by ha, and this ha answers to the Sansk. ka in é-ka; iha, the second half of the word haihs, theme ha-iha, is the Sansk. ashi, eye. The Latin cacus = ca-ico is formed on the same principle. In hanfs, theme ha-ufa we have again the pronominal root ha and nifa, a transposition of the Sansk. páni, hand. (f for p harmonizes with Grimm's law.) halts, theme ha-lta, consists of two roots, the pronominal ha and the verbal root lith, to go, from which also is derived lithus, limb, i.e. that which is moved; hence ha-litha, halta, halts, halt = one-limbed, one-footed: halbs, theme ha-lba from ha and leiba, remnant, part; hence haliba, halbs, half = one part of a whole that has been divided.

### two

The Sansk. base dva, Gr. dvo-, Lat. duo, Goth. tva- all point to a primitive form dua- or dva-. The Latin prefix bi and adverb bis, Gr. dis, seem to have arisen from the same form, the initial d being dropped and v hardened into b. The same prefix we have in the A.S. tvi (Gr. and Lat. d is, according to Grimm's law, in Low German t, and in High German z) and O. H. Germ. zui, e.g. A.S. tvi-finger, two fingers long; tvi-hive, bicolor; O. H. Germ. zui-beine, bipes; zui-falt, duplex. The English adverb twice, O. H. Germ. zuiro, more fully zuiror, O. N. tvis-var, again contains the prefix tvi (bis, dis) and var, Sansk. vára, time; hence twice = two times, &c. (This var also appears in the Latin ber in Septem-ber, i. e. the seventh time, or part, of the year.)

# three

In Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, the theme or base is tri, in Goth. thri, O. H. Germ. dri, the displacement of the initial dentals being in strict accordance with Grimm's law. It is considered a shortened form of a more ancient tar-i or tra-i; the Sanskrit fem. form is ti-sar- which Bopp takes for a reduplication, ti-tar-.

# four

As the primitive form is laid down katvar-, which in Sanskrit is represented by chatvār-, base chatur, theme of the feminine chatasar-. This word is strictly formed after the analogy of three,' Sansk. fem. theme ti-sar-, and cha=ka, one (comp. é-ka above), hence cha-tasar=1+3. The Gr.  $\tau \ell \tau \tau a\rho$ -,  $\tau \ell \sigma \sigma a\rho$ -, stand for  $\tau \tau \epsilon \tau \ell a\rho$ -,  $\kappa \epsilon \tau \ell a\rho$ -, Dor.  $\tau \epsilon \tau a\rho$ -,  $\tau \epsilon \tau \epsilon \rho$ -, Beot.  $\pi \ell \tau \tau a\rho$ -, Hom. and Æol.  $\pi \ell \sigma \sigma \rho$ -, where we find  $\tau$  or  $\pi$  in the place of the primitive  $\kappa$ . In the Lat. quatuor, the q stands for the primitive k, and the u (=w) is a favourite sound in Latin after the tenuis k, just as in Gothic the aspirate k at the beginning of a word. (Comp. Gr.  $\tau \ell s$ , Lat. quis, Goth. hvas.) The Gothic fidur (with f = p = k) is the simple theme of fidvõr, analogous to the Sansk. chatur for chatvār-.

# five

The primitive form laid down by Schleicher as kan-kan is evidently a reduplication, where in Sanskrit p crept in for the first k in the theme panchan; but Bopp derives the word from pa + ka (the n in the middle considered a later addition, and the

final consonant euphonic), and thus he gives it the meaning 'and one,' i. e. one in addition to the preceding number four. Gr.  $\pi \acute{e} \nu \tau \acute{e}$  puts first  $\pi$  for  $\kappa$ , and next  $\tau$  for  $\kappa$  (both dislocations occur under 4), Æol.  $\pi \acute{e} \mu \pi \epsilon$ ; while the Lat. quinque preserves the primitive k sound, and the Goth. fimf=fimfi (from a primitive k anki-) has f = p and p for k. (Comp. 4, 11, 12, &c.)

# six

The primitive form is supposed to have been ksva-ksva, again a reduplication, from which the Sansk. shash may be explained by an intermediate form kshaksh, which again stood for ksaks. Gr.  $\mathcal{E}_f$ , Dor.  $f \in \mathcal{E}_f$ , Lat. sex, presuppose a more primitive svex = sve-c-s, the Greek spiritus asper answering here as elsewhere to the original s. Goth. sai-h-s is formed on the same principle as the Lat. sex, Gothic h being the representative of the Latin k (see Grimm's law).

#### seven

The primitive form was probably, like the Sansk. base, saptan, which is rendered by the Gr.  $\xi\pi\tau\dot{a}$  (a=an), Lat. septem for septim, Goth. sibun. (Gr. h again for s.) Bopp thinks that the m in septem has crept in from the ordinal septim-o, an opinion which is contradicted by Schleicher upon the evidence of the analogous forms in the other Aryan languages.

# eight

A primitive base aktu must have given origin to the Sansk. ashtan, ashtu, ashtau (probably from aktav-as), Gr.  $\delta\kappa\tau\omega$ , Lat. octo, Goth. ahtau, ahtu. Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, are apparently dual forms. The primitive form of the theme aktu is quite distinct in the ordinals octav-o,  $\dagger\delta\gamma\delta\sigma F-o$ : the same base is apparent in the Goth. ahtau, theme ahtavi- (comp. sunau, loc. sing. sunavi); so also in the Gothic ordinal ahtu-da-n, ahtu=aktu (Goth. h=Sansk. k, Grimm's law) we trace the primitive base again.

## nine

The primitive and Sansk. navan appears in Greek as  $\epsilon \nu \nu \epsilon a$  for  $^{\dagger}\nu \epsilon Fa(\nu)$ , with the favourite prelude  $\epsilon$  introduced, and  $\nu$  dropped; Lat. novem instead of novim; Goth. niun, theme niuni, from  $^{\dagger}nivani = ^{\dagger}navani$ .

## ten

Primitive dakan, Sanskrit base dakan, Gr. δέκα=†δέκαν, Lat. decem=decim; Goth. taíhun, theme tihuni, O. H. Germ. zëhan. (Observe Grimm's law: Sansk. d, Goth. t, O. H. Germ. z.) The Sansk. dakan, or rather its primitive form dakan, stands for dra-kan; dva=tvo, kan for kankan, panchan=five, and hence dakan, our ten, means 'two times five.'

# 11, 12

For these numbers the primitive language had distinct words, as dud dakan (12), &c.; so also in Sansk. éka-dasan (11), dvádaśan (12), Gr. εν-δεκα, δώ-δεκα, Lat. un-decim = uni-decim, duodecim. Goth. ain-lif (11), tva-lif (12), are the nominatives of ain-libi, tva-libi. The bases ain and tva have been treated on above; the second part of the compounds, libi, is derived from the dakan (10) of the Ursprache, which in Gothic may first have assumed the form tigi, substituting, according to Grimm's law, t for the Sansk. d, and, instead of proceeding according to the same law from the Sanskrit guttural to the aspirate, returning into the media g. This guttural media was then exchanged for the labial media b, an occurrence which is not without a parallel in other words. The further exchange of the initial dental for the liquid l is without a parallel in Gothic, but not unknown in the cognate languages. The Lat. lacruma is the same word as the Gr.  $\delta d\kappa \rho \nu$ , l taking the place in the Latin which d holds in the Greek word. The replacement of the d by l in dakan, or rather its Gothic form tigi, tibi, may have been facilitated by the close resemblance between this word and the Gothic verb leib-an, to remain, leave, pret. laif, plur. libum; so that finally the two words of different origin become phonetically the same. eleven, twelve, therefore mean 1+10, 2+10 respectively.

# 13-19

These numerals are in Sanskrit compounds of daśan and the respective unit, as trayô-daśan (13), chatur-daśan (14): the corresponding Greek words are merely joined by the copulative καί, as τρεῖς-καὶ-δέκα (13), τέσσαρες-καὶ-δέκα (14), whilst Latin forms, like Sanskrit, compounds, as tre-decim, quin-decim (15), se-decim (16), and on the same principle are formed the Goth. fidvôrtaihun (14), fimf-taihun (15).

# 20-90

We have to consider the 'tens' only; the intermediate members, i. e. their combination with 'units' require no explanation, because in none of the languages here considered do they form compounds, but are merely put together, occasionally joined by the copula 'and.'

In the manner of forming these numerals the South-European differ from the North-European or Slavono-Teutonic languages: the former express the 'tens' by an agglutination of the units with a substantive derived from dakan (10), which, by means of abbreviation or other modifications, has dwindled down into a mere termination; while the latter express the 'tens' and 'units' by distinct words, which however may form compounds.

Sanskrit originally expressed the 'tens' by daśa-ti, daśa-ta, of which nothing remained but śati, or only ti, or śat, as vi-śati (20) for †dvi-daśati, shash-ti (60)=shash-daśati, pancha-śat (50)==pancha-śata. In the Gr.  $\epsilon$ ikooi- the first syllable shows the base  $\epsilon$ v (one); ko-oi is the primitive daka-ti, or rather, dropping the first syllable, ka-ti. The kov-oa of the other 'tens' is perhaps derived from a neuter plural base kan-ta for dakan-ta. The Latin vi-ginti presents in its first syllable vi the base dvi (two), and vi-ginti stands for a form †dvi-ginti in the same manner as the Sansk. viśati for a †dviśati; and ginti stands for †deginti=†decinti, from a primitive form dakan-ti, so that the full form of triginta would be †tria-decinta.

Gothic, our representative of the North-European or Slavono-Teutonic tribe, forms the 'tens' from 10 to 60 by putting two distinct words together, expressing the 'tens' by tigu, a base in u for daku, derived from dakan (10), hence trai-tiggu-s (20); the 'tens' from 70 to 90 are formed by dakan with the suffix ta, in the Gothic garb reading tehun-d, e.g. sibun-tehund (70).

### 100

The genitive base used to indicate this number appears to be kanta, an abbreviation of dakan-dakan-ta, a form which in English might be rendered by an analogous compound, namely ten-ty = ten times ten, in the same manner as we say nine-ty = ten times nine, and in Greek and Latin the compounds would be  $^{\dagger}\delta\epsilon\kappa\eta\kappa\rho\nu\tau a$ ,  $^{\dagger}centaginta$ . The n of the primitive kanta is preserved in Latin and Gothic, cent-um, hund-a; but it is dropped in Sanskrit and Greek,  $\delta ata$ ,  $\delta -\kappa a\tau \delta$  ( $\delta = \delta v$ ). The Gothic language

has, besides the word hunda, a more modern form to denote the same number, taihun-taihun-d, which is composed exactly on the principle of the dakan-dakan-ta, ten times ten (compare sibun-tekund, seventy).

# 200-900

The primitive language undoubtedly applied two words to express the foregoing figures; Sanskrit also uses two distinct words, or contracts them into one, e. g. dvé-ŝaté or dviŝata (200), ŝata being of course the base kanta again. The Greek forms are κατο, κοτο, with the derivative suffix ya—κατιο, κοτιο, later form κόσιο; compare τρια-κατίο-, a Doric form, and the Attic τρια-κόσιο-. The Latin base cento is used as an adjective in the plural, tre-centi (300) for tre-cento, quin-genti for quin-cento (700), where the c after n is softened into the media g; and in the same manner septin-genti, where the septin answers exactly to the primitive saptan. (See above, sub 7.) Gothic never forms compounds by agglutination, like Greek and Latin, but it simply puts the two words together, e. g. tva-hunda (200).

# 1000

A word for this number does not seem to have existed in the primitive language. The Sanskrit sahasra, Gr.  $\chi(\lambda\iota o\iota. \, ^{\dagger}\chi\eta\lambda\iota o\iota$  (leading to a primitive  $^{\dagger}\chi\epsilon\lambda\iota o=$ gharya), the Latin mili-, milli-, are all of an obscure origin. The Gothic word is thusundja (thousand), in which Schleicher finds the number 'ten times hundred' expressed, namely, daka (10) in the initial syllable thu (=tu), kantya, kanti (100) in the form sundi, sundja; and this would yield as the result daka-kant-t (10 × 100).

# TABLE OF CARDINALS IN THE OLD TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

# Masculine.

No.	I. Gothic.	2. Anglo-Saxon.	3. Old Saxon.	4. Old Frisian.	5. O. Norse.	6. O. H. Germ.
1	ains	ân	ên	ên	[ein-n]	cin
2	tvai	tregen	tuêna	twêne	tveir	zwênê
8	†breis	bri	thria	thrê	þrír	dri
4	fidvôr	feóver	fivar	fiver	fiorir	vior
5	fmf	fif	fif	fif	fimm	finf
6	saihs	six	schs	sex	sex	sēks
7	sibun	seofon	ะเป็นท <sub>ี</sub>	sigun	siau	sibun
8	ahtáu	ahta	ahtô	achta	âtta	ahtô
9	niun	nigon	nigun	nigun	หรัน -	niun
10	taihun	tin	tehan	tian	tiu	gëhan
11	ain-lif	end-leofan and cl-lefan	† <i>&amp;l-lif</i>	and-lova, el- leva	ellifu	ein-lif
12	tra-lif	twelf	tue-lif	twi-lif	tôlf	zwe-lif
13	†þrija-taíhun	pred-teon (tyne)		†thrêtine	brettian	dri-zëhan
14	fidvôr-taíhun	feóver-teon		finner-time	for-tian	flor-zëhan
15	fimf-taihun	fif-teon	l	fif-tine	fim-tian	finf-zēkan
16	†saihs-taihun	six-teon		sex-tine	sex-tian	sēhs-zēha#
17	†sibun-taihun	seofen-teon		singun-tine	siau-tian	sibun-zéhan
18	tahtiu-taihun	eaht-teon		achta-tine	âttian	ahtô-těha
19	†niun-taihun	nigon-teon	٠	niugen-tine	nîtian	niun-zēhŒ
20	tvai tigjus	twen-tig	tuên-tig	twint-ich	tut-tugu	zwein-zu 9
30	breis tigjus	bri-tig	thrî-tig	thrí-tich	bria-tigi	dri-zug
40	fidror tigjus	feorer-tig	fiwar-tig	fuwer-tich	fior-tiu	fior-zug
50	fimf tigjus	fif-tig	fif-tech	fif-tech	fimm-tîu	fimf-zug
60	saihs tigjus	six-tig	sehs-tig	sex-tich	sex-tin	sëh»-zug
70	sibun-têhund	seofen-tig	ant-sibun-ta	siugun-tich	siò-tigi	ะเป็นท-ะอ์
80	ahtau-téhund	eaht-tig	ant-ahtô-da	achtan-tich	âtta-tigi	akto-zó
90	niun-têhund	nigon-tig	†ant-nigun-da ?	nigon-tick	nîu-tigir	
100	taihun-têhund	teon-tig	hund	hundred	hundrad	zehan-zô

# TABLE OF CARDINALS IN THE MIDDLE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

No.	Old and Middle English.	Middle High German.
1	an, on, oon	ein(er), (f. einiu, n. eines)
2	twey twi, twein, twe, two	zwêne (f. zevô, zweš)
3	pre, three	drî (drî, driu)
4	four	vier(e) (viere, vieriu)
5	fire	vunf (vünve, vünviu)
6	sixe	schs
7	seuen	siben (sibeniu)
8	eigte, aught	aht (ëhte, ahtiu)
9	nyne, nye	niun (niune, niuniu)
10	ten	zëhen
11	elleuen, elleue	einlif, einlef, einleve
12	twelve	esnlif. einlef, einleve zwelef, zwelf, zweleve

No.	Old and Middle English.	Middle High German.
13	prottene, prittene	dri-zëhen, drizën
14	four-tene	vier-zëhen, -zên
15	fif-tene	vunf-zöhen
16	sixtene	sehszehen
17	seventene	sibenzöhen
18	eigtetene, eigtene, auktene	ahtzehen
19		niunzëhen
20	tuen-ti	zwein-zec, zweinzich.
80	thri-tti	dri-zec, -zich
40	(fourti?)	vierzec
50	fyfti	vunfzec
60	sixti	sehszec
70	seventi	sibenzec
80	eigteti	ahtzec
90	nienti	niunzec
100	hundred	zähen-zec, zehenzich, hunt, hundert
1000	bousend	tilsent

# TABLE OF CARDINAL IN THE NEW TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

German.	English.	Dutch.	Swedish.	Danish.	
cin	one	één	en (N. ett)	cen (cet)	
zwei	two	troce	tvd	to	
drei	three	drie	tre	tre	
vier	four	vier	fyra	fire	
funf	five	vijf	fem	fêm.	
sechs	six	zes	sex	sex:	
sieben	seven	zeven	aju	syv	
acht	eight	acht	åtta	aatte	
neun	nine	negen	nió	ni	
zehn	ten	tiën	tiô	ti	
elf	eleven	df	elfva	èlieve	
zwölf	twelve	twaalf	tolf	tolv	
drei-zehn	thir-teen	der-tien	tre-tion	tre-tien	
vier-zehn	four-teen	veer-tien	fjôr-ton	fjòr-ten	
fünfzehn	fifteen	vijftien	femton	femten	
sechzehn	sixteen	zestien	sexton	sejsten (sexten)	
siebenzehn	seventeen	zeventien	sjutton	sytten `	
achtzehn	eighteen	achttien	aderton	alten	
neunzehn	nineteen	negentien	nitton	nitten	
zwan-zig	twen-ty	twin-tig	tjugu (-8 -8)	type	
drei-ßig	thir-ty	der-tig	tre-ttiô (-e)	trè-dive	
vier-zig	for-ty	veer-tig	fyr-tið (-e)	fyrre-tyve	
fünfzig	fifty	vijftig	femtiô	halvtrés (indstyve)	
sechzig	sixty	zestig	sextiô	tres (tresindstype)	
siebenzig	seventy	seventig	sguttiô	halvfjèrs (indstyve)	
achtzig	eighty	tachtig	åttatiö	firs (firsindstyve)	
neunzig	ninety	negentig	nittiö	halvfèms (indstyve)	
hundert	hundred	honderd	hundrade (hundra)		
zwei hun ert	two hundred	twee honderd		to hundrede	
tausend	thousand	duizend	tusende (tusen)	tusinde.	

#### REMARKS ON THE TEUTONIC CARDINALS.

#### one

We find the primitive base <u>aina</u>-for the number 'one' in all Teutonic languages, ancient and modern, modified of course in accordance with the phonetic character of each dialect, as O. H. Germ. ein, A. S. án, Germ. ein, Dutch een, O. Engl. on, Engl. one, &c.<sup>1</sup>

### two

The Goth.  $tv\acute{a}i$  is not the base from which the Anglo-Saxon and Old High German forms are derived, but rather the distributive tveihnai, which in Old High German has dropped the k  $(zw\acute{e}n\acute{e})$  and hardened it in Anglo-Saxon into g=twegen. The Gothic gen.  $tvaddj\acute{e}$  also cannot result from the nom.  $tv\acute{a}i$ , but requires a base tvaddja, which Bopp brings into connection with the Sanskrit ordinal dcitiva.

In the other Low German dialects, O.S. tuéna, O. Fris. twéne, the h again suffers elision, and in the Modern Engl. two, Dutch twee, Dan. to, Swed. två, contraction has taken place. Very ancient forms are preserved in the Old Norse datives tvei-mr and pri-mr for tvei-ms and pri-ms, where the case-sign of the dative plural is found in a completeness unparalleled in the Teutonic languages. This numeral is especially noteworthy for its strict adhesion to Grimm's law, according to which we have the media d in the cognate languages, dva, duo; the tenuis t in the Low German dialects, Goth. tvai, A.S. twegen, O.S. tuéna, O.N. tveir; and the aspirate z in the O. H. Germ. zwéné. The law continues to be observed in the O. Engl. twey and M. H. Germ. zwéne, even in the N. H. Germ. zwei for the Low German forms with t, as Engl. two, Dutch twee, Dan. to, Swed. två. The O. N. r in tvei-r has usurped the place of the Goth. s.

# three

The Goth. pri- (in prija, preis) harmonizes with the tri- in the cognate languages by using the aspirate th in place of the tenuis, a submission to law which is equally practised by all the Old Low German dialects (A. S. pri, O. N. prir, &c.), whilst Old High German adopted, as by law it was directed, the media d. As to the modern dialects we observe that Middle and New

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Concerning the radicals, Goth. ai, A.S.  $\hat{a}$ , Germ. ei, see the table of gradations, Order i, p. 24.

High German follow the course of their ancient mother by preserving the media; but among the Low German it is English alone that keeps up the ancient lawful th, while the Dutch and the Old Norse dialects yield to intruders, the former adopting the media (probably under High German pressure), the latter hardening the aspirate into the tenuis for the simple reason that they have expelled the aspirate altogether from their domain.

# four

The Gothic fid-vor (fidur) which renders fully the Sansk. chat-var (chatur), primitive kat-var, replaces the guttural tenuis by the labial aspirate, a change which equally occurs in all the Teutonic dialects, ancient as well as modern, with this modification only, that the High German dialects (and Dutch following their example) supplant the f by v, a distinction however which is merely graphical, the sound of H. Germ v and f at the beginning of a word being identical. But the Gothic fid-vor appears in a more mutilated form in the other Teutonic dialects, the d being dropped in all, and in Old High German the w as well, which latter consonant is vocalized in the modern dialects. This numeral has thus mostly become monosyllabic, as Engl. four, Dutch and Germ. vier.

# five

In this numeral all the Teutonic dialects adopt, like Gothic, and in accordance with Grimm's law, the labial aspirate f in the place of the tenuis p which occurs in the cognate languages, the only exception being Middle High German and New Dutch, where the letter v is used to denote the same sound as f. The m however of the Goth. fimf, which stands for the primitive n, has been subject to divers modifying influences. In the H. Germ. finf we see the original n restored in its place. The Norse dialects to the present day preserve the m and dismiss the final f (hence O. N. fimm, Dan. and Swed. fem), while the Low German dialects, which never tolerate an n before f or  $\delta$  (see sub lit. n), preserve the f and dismiss the n (m) instead: A. S. fif, Engl. five, &c., compared to Germ. finf, Dan. fém.

#### six

The Gothic h in sath-s duly represents the k of the cognate languages, as Latin sex = sec-s. This guttural h, which must not be confounded with the sibilant marked by the same letter,

is found in Old Saxon according to the rule, and in Old and Middle High German in spite of it. All the other Teutonic dialects have hardened the hs into hs, cs, x, as A. S., Engl. sic, Scandinavian sex, &c. Exceptional forms are the Dutch zes and the Germ. sechs, the former having dropped the guttural altogether and softened s into z, the latter having developed the Old and Middle German h, into ch, a change which occurs in all words which in Old German ended in hs or ht.

#### seven

The Goth. sibun, which renders the primitive saptan in a greatly modified and rather irregular form, is still further modified according to the spirit of each dialect. Thus the Higher German dialects have the b in common with the Gothic contrary to the rule, but so far only as Gothic is here in the wrong and High German in the right, because the p of the cognate languages should be represented in Gothic by the aspirate (pk, f), and consequently in Old High German by the media b. If therefore we put for instance the A. S. seofon as the representative of the Low German class, we find Grimm's law strictly applied in the order P, PH, B. The Old Saxon dialect replaces the media by the soft aspirate t = v, a course which is followed in most of the modern Teutonic languages, as Engl. seven, Dutch zeven, Dan. syv, while German remains faithful to the H. Germ. b,  $\delta i(e)ben$ : the e is an inorganic addition. Peculiar is the vocalization of v for the Gothic b in the O.N. sian for siav, which yields the Swedish sju, and the completely isolated case of the O. Fris. sigun, where the guttural replaces the labial media.

# eight

The Goth.  $aht\acute{a}u$  is a regular rendering of the primitive ahtu, the k of the cognate languages being in Gothic supplanted by the guttural aspirate h, and the t preserved by the preceding h, which like f, suffers no other letter but the tenuis after it. In the other Teutonic dialects, however, the guttural has experienced divers vicissitudes. Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon adopted, like Gothic and according to law, the guttural aspirate h, and Old High German adapted itself here again to Low German usage, while Old Frisian, in advance of its sister dialects, developed the h into the hard guttural ch, a course which was followed later on by modern dialects, the German and Dutch having acht for aht, while the English developed out of the Anglo-Saxon h the

#### NUMERALS.

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combination gh, eight—for which Old English eigt and aught. The O. N. átta has assimilated the guttural to the succeeding t, whereby gemination is produced with the lengthening of the preceding vowel. The form is strictly preserved in the Dan. autte and the Swed. åtta.

# nine

The Goth. niun shows the primitive navan in a contracted form, with which the O. H. Germ. niun is identical; and Old Norse would be, but for the n it has dropped, níu. From the O. H. Germ. and M. H. Germ. niun we have the German neun (en for in according to the rule), and from the O.N. nin the Danish ni, giving preponderance to the first of the two yowels' to the loss of the second, the Swedish patronising the latter in nio. But far more noteworthy is the Anglo-Saxon, Old Saxon, and Old Frisian guttural media g in the place of the primitive vin navan, so that the A.S. nigon, O.S. nigun, O. Fris. nigun= nijun, correspond to the Goth. niu-n = nivu-n. Here again Gothic is far outdone in point of antiquity and primitive characteristics by its Low German sister-tongues. The modern dialects followed the course commenced in Gothic already, and dropping the middle consonant, contracted the two syllables into one, hence the Engl. nine, O. Engl. still nye; nyne, probably bisyllabic, from A.S. nigon, or perhaps rather O.N. niu, Germ. neun from niun; Dutch alone has preserved the full Low German form in negen.

### ten

Grimm's law is strictly carried out by the Goth. taihun and all its Low German representatives rendering the primitive media d by the tenuis t, and the High German using, also according to law, the aspirate z. But the middle guttural of the primitive dak-an is greatly modified not only in the Teutonic but in the cognate dialects as well. It is preserved in the Gr.  $\delta \epsilon \kappa$ -a, the Lat. dec-em and the Goth. taih-un (h in Gothic being the lawful representative of the primitive k), while the Sanskrit has adopted the sibilant s in  $da\delta$ -an. Among the Teutonic languages Old Saxon and High German have preserved the h, O. S. tehan, O. H. Germ. zehan, M. H. Germ. zehen (and contracted zen), N. H. Germ. zehen, zehn. The other old Teutonic dialects and their modern derivatives drop the middle guttural and contract the word into a monosyllable, as A. S. tin, Engl. ten, Dutch tien, O. N. tin, Dan. ti, Swed. tio.

# 11, 12

Concerning the formation of these numerals we have seen above how the Goth. lif in ain-lif, tra-lif, corresponds to the Lat. decem, Gr. less and Sansk. dairs, and that consequently our words eleven, treelee, simply mean 10+1 and 10+2 respectively. The same compound of numeral and suffix occurs in the other Teutonic dialects too, but in forms greatly modified by elisions and contractions. The suffix lif we find fully preserved in Old Saxon, Old Frisian, and Old High German; Middle High German modified the lif into lef, and Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse drop the vowel altogether, leaving simply If to represent the suffix. This If occurs in all the modern Teutonic dialectes except in English and Danish, where the ancient f is rendered by t its softer twin aspirate. Very strange is the occurrence of the inorganic d in the A.S. end-leofan, O. Fris. and-lova, the unit in the former language being an, in the latter en. The Old High German and Middle High German preserve the numeral -'one' intact in the word ein-lif, ein-lef, whilst Old Norse drops the vowel and assimilates the n to the succeeding l, hence el-lifu; thus also in O. Engl. elleue, Dan. elleve. Most mutilated are the German and Dutch elf, Engl. eleven, where the numeral is represented merely by e. The numeral tva in tva-lif (12) is preserved in the different dialects with a modification of the vowel, as twi, twe, H. Germ. zwe; the Scandinavian dialects, however, vocalize the va into 6, O. N. tô-lf, Swed. tolf, Dan. tolv.

### 13—19

All these numerals are in the different Teutonic languages, just as in Gothic, compounds of the 'units' with the word 'ten,' so that the O. N. tian, A. S. tëon (tin, tin), O. H. Germ. zëhan, bear their explanation in themselves, and the terminations of these numerals in the modern Teutonic dialects are easily explained as derivatives of the ancient forms.

# 20-90

The tigjus of the Goth. tvai-tigjus (20) having been explained already, we may confine ourselves to a short review of the corresponding forms and their peculiarities in the other Teutonic languages.

The O. N. tigi in pria-tigi and piu in fior-tiu are modifications

of the fuller form tugu in tu-ttugu, which, like the O. H. Germ. zug in zwein-zug, represent the Goth. tigjus, a base in u, daku from dakan (10); and quite as readily will be perceived the relation of A. S., O. S. tig, O. Fris. tich. The final consonant is dropped in the O. Engl. tuen-ti, N. Engl. twen-ty, with the usual change of the final i into y. The Swed. tió is the direct descendant of the O. N. tiu, while the Dan. dive undoubtedly owes its origin to some other source. Very characteristic in this form is the use of the labial aspirate for the guttural media, dive = dige, which is the reverse of the O. Fris. sigun for A. S. seofon, O. S. sibun (7), and the A. S. nigon, O. Fris., O. S. nigun for the Goth. niun=niv-un, primitive nav-an.

For the formation of the 'tens' from 'seventy' upwards, most of the Old Teutonic dialects use a word differing from tigjus in form and, to a certain extent, in derivation, though not in meaning. The Goth. téhun-d, which is used in sibun-téhund (70), &c., pre-supposes, as we have explained before, a primitive dakan-ta, and answers in meaning to the Gr. dékas. This téhund we meet in the other dialects in more or less modified forms. The whole form we find contracted in the O. H. Germ. 26, sibun-26. The most ancient mode of forming the numerals 'seventy,' &c., in Anglo-Saxon was to place the undeclinable hund, shortened from tehund, and expressing the 'tens,' side by side with the respective unit of the ordinals, e.g. hundeseofode (70), hundeahtode (80), hundnigode (90); in a like manner the O.S. ant is used (though its identity with the A. S. hund is not proved), and forms the 'tens' by entering into a combination with the ordinals, e. g. antsibunda (70), antahtoda (80), antnigunda (90), forms which may be rendered in Latin by decas septima, decas octava, But in later times the Anglo-Saxon suffix tig decas nona. (=Goth. tigjus), which had been used for the numerals from 10 to 60 only, found entrance also in the higher numbers, as seofontig (70) (in the same manner as in late Old High German we find sibunzug for sibunzo), although the ancient prefix hund did not yield its place at once; and thus it happened that in forms like hundseofontig (70), hundeahtatig (80), &c., the 'ten' is expressed twice, by the suffix tig and the prefix hund. The same pleonasm occurs in the O. Fris. t-achtich (80), t-niogentich (90), and the last trace is in the Modern Dutch of the present day, where the t in tachtig (80), is as in Old Frisian the mutilated form of a word like O. S. ant, expressing the 'decas,' which is repeated in the suffix tich, tig.

From this circumstance may perhaps be explained a peculiar mode of reckoning from 70 upwards, which was adopted in Old English by the sale of the regular one mentioned in our taking and according to which the manbers were expressed by the numera surv and its respective addition, e.g. sixti and sistem 75 ast out more 75 in the same manner as not the French my marrie mice, mineric trace. From 'eighty' the sense solve was used as four score and nice (89), electical with the French successionstated; air ecore and of 121. It would access as if with the suffix head, which was dropped in the course of time, the numeral itself had, thought only for a period and in certain localities, fallen into disuse. Among the accient Teutonic tribes the reckoning by 'decades' did not stop below the 'hundred,' but the latter number itself, and the numbers up to 120 were expressed like their predecessors below hundred. Hence the Gothic taihun-tehund, A. S. hund-teentig, O. N. tiu-tiu, which we could imitate in English if we were allowed to say tendy as well as nine-ty or twen-ty. This mode of reckoning was indeed preserved so late as the period of Middle High German, where we find zehen-zich used by the side of hundert 100. The different forms in the Teutonic dialects for the word 'hundred' have their prototype in the Gothic hund-a, which, like the Latin cent-um, may be traced to a primi-

No.	Engl.	Old Engl.	Ang.Sax.	Dutch.	Old Sax.	O. Fris.	Danish.	Swedish.	O. N.
1	une	an, on	án	(CR	ćn	ċn	ecn (ed)	en (ett)	cin
2	1400	tacey, two	boyen	tuese	tučna	tecine	10	två	tucir
8	three	þre	þri	drie	thria	thré	tre	tre	þrtr
4	finer	finer	feuver	rier	Actr	ficer	fire	/yra	four
5	flee.	floc	fV	rijf	W	M	fêm	fem.	finn
6	six	sixe	si x	208	schs	SCI	ex.	ac.r	MI
7	sewn	seven	seafon	zeren	sibun	sigum	syre	sju	siau
Ŋ	right	eigle, aught	ahta	acht	aMó	achta	aatte	åtta	dtta
¥	ninc	nyne, nye	nigon	negen	nigun	nigun	ní	nió	ntu
10	len	ten	tin	tien	lehan	tian	ti	લંઠ	tiu
11	eleven	elleuen	end-kofan	ess	(cl-lif)	and-lova	èlleve	el/va	dlifu
12	teortor	tweluc	twelf	twaalf	tue-lif	twi-lif	tolu	tolf	tólf
1:	thirteen	prottene, prit	þreo-tëm	der-tien	(*)	(thré-tine)	tretten	tretton	þrettia
20	twenty	tuenti	twen-tig	twin-tig	tuén-tig	twin-tich	type	Gugu	tut-tug
3	thirty	thritti	pri-tig	der-tig	thri-tig	thri-tich	tredive	trettió	priatig
7	acventy	seuenti	scofen-tig	seven-lig	ant-sibunda	siugun-tic)	halosjers	sjuttió	siötigi
to	0 hundra	hundred	teon-tig hundred	honderd	hund	hundred	hundred	kundrade	hundr
TON	a Managar	d pousend	busend	duizend	thusend	thusend	tusinde	tusende	

tive dakan-ta for dakan-dakan-ta  $(10 \times 10)$ , and the ancient word 'hundred' would consequently be identical in meaning and in formation with the more modern taihun-tehund=ten times ten.

As to the modern Teutonic languages none give occasion to any special notice except the Danish. The compounds tresindstyve (60), firsindstyve (80), femsindstyve (100), the latter not used in this form, express the meaning 'three times twenty,' 'four times twenty,' five times twenty,' and form an analogon to the French quatre-vingt. They contain (1) the cardinals tres, fir, fem. (3, 4, 5), (2) the word sinds = Goth. sinbs or neut. sinb, O. H. Germ. sind, A. S. sio (meaning 'a walk,' 'a turn'), which were used to form adverbial numerals, e. g. Goth. ainamma sinha, amaf, traim sinham, dis, &c.; A S. feower sidum (quater), seofon sidum (septies), &c., where we say five times, seven times, &c. (3) The numeral tyve (20). The forms halvtresindstyve (50), halvfjersindstyve (70), halvfemsindstyve (90), prefix the adverbial noun halv (half) to indicate that half the amount of twenty is reckoned, hence halviresindstyve is tresindstyve, i.e. 'sixty,' but half the amount of type or twenty is taken off the sixty, hence it means 'fifty;' femeindstyve, for 'hundred,' is not used, but halvfemsindstype to express the number 'ninety.'

-		W II C	10110	T -42-	l (C1-	10	D1141	122
ic.	Germ.	M. H. Germ.	O.H.G.	Latin.	Greek.	Sanskrit.	Primitive.	No.
	cin(s)	cin	cin	นท-นร	els, év-	éka-	aina-	1
	moei	moine(ci)	swini	duo	<b>ဝိ</b> ယ်စ	dea	dua, dva	2
	drei	drl	dri	tres	τρεῖς, τρι	tri-	tri-	8
	vier	vier	vior	quatuor	теттарес	chatur	katvar	4
	funf	vunf	ftmf	quinque	πέντε	pánchan	kankan	5
	sechs	schs	sēhs	KX	ëë (féë)	shash	ksvaks	6
	si(e)ben	siben	sibun	seplem	da rá	sáptan	saptan	7
	acht	aht	ahló	octo	derú	ashjau	aktu	8
	RCUR	niun	niun	novem	èrréa.	ndvan	navan	9
	achn	sthen	sihan	decem	8éna	dáían	dakan	10
•	df	cinits	ein-lif	un-decim	ёт-века	ékd-daéan	aina-dakan	11
•	20001/	swelef	zwe-lif	duo-decim	ды-дека	dva-dasan	dud-dakan	12
tai- )	dreżzekn	drisén	dri-sëhan	tre-decim	tpeîs-kai- Béka			18
z <del>jus</del>	rwanzig	stocinsec (sich)	sweinsug	viginti	eïkogı	vládti	٠٠.	20
igjus	dreißig	drizec	drizug	triginta	тріажорта			80
U- d	siebenzig	sibensec	sibunzó	septuaginta	έβδομή- κοντα	saptati		70
∟tê- i	hundert	schensec hun- derl	zēhanzó	centum	екато́у	faté	kanta	100
	lausend	trisent	١	mille	χιλίοι	dalaiatt	١	1000

#### DECLENSION OF CARDINALS.

#### OLD TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

In Gothic the numerals 'one' to 'three' only have a complete declension through all cases and genders; the other numerals are of common gender and uninflected, or, extending the theme by i, they form a few isolated cases. The same remark holds good for the other Low German dialects, while in the Old High German we find the distinction of genders, and sometimes the complete declension, with the numerals above 'three,' the inflexion being brought about as in Gothic by the addition of the thematic i.

#### one

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asc. âm, fem. ân, neut. ân O.S. masc. ên, fem. ên take the inflexions of th jective declension.

Old Frisian.			Old Norse.			O. H. Germ.	
Nom. Gen. Dat.	Masc.  ên, ân êncs, ânes êna ênne, ânne		Neut.  en, an enes ena en	ļ	Fem.  ein ein-nar ein-ni ein-a	eit-t	Masc. ein, ein-er, fem. ein, ein-ju, neut. ein, ein-aş, have the inflex- ions of the adjective.

Note.—This numeral is in several Old Teutonic dialects used in the singular feminine also, and then it assumes the meaning of sola; this is the case in Gothic, Old High German, Old Frisian (which in this case supplies the prefix al before the numeral), and Anglo-Saxon, where the masculine also may be applied in the sense of 'solus.'

The plural also occurs, and renders in Gothic the meaning of  $\mu \delta \nu o \iota$ , in Old High German and Old Norse of 'quidam,' in Anglo-Saxon of 'singuli,' 'nonnulli.' (Compare the French les uns, quelques uns, and the Spanish unos in the sense of 'quidam,' 'nonnulli.')

## two

Gothic.				Anglo-Saxon.			
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	tvaddj-è tvaim	tvås †tvaddj-8 tvaim tvås	tva †tvaddj-8 tvaim tva	twegen	twâ twegra, twega twâ twâm	twâ, twig	

	Old Sa	Old	Frisi	an.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	tuêna, tuêne	tuâ, tuô	tuš	troêne	twâ	twâ
Gen.	••	tuêjô			twira	۱
Dat.		tuém	1		twâm	١
Accus	. tuêna, tuene	tuâ, tuô	twêne	twâ	twâ	

		Old Norse.	Old High German.			
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. Gen.	tveir	tvoer tvoggja	tvau, tvö	zwênê 	zweiô, zweierô	zwei
Dat. Accus.	trå	tveimr, tveim tvoer	tvau, tvö	zwênê	zweim, zwêm zwê, zwâ	 zwei

## three

		Gothic.	Ang	:lo-Sa:	con.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Gen.	brijê	†preis, prijos †prijo	þrijê	þrí	þreð þreðra	þreó
Dat. Accus.	þrim Þrins	prim  †prins, prijôs	þrim Þrija	þrí	þrím Þreó	þreó

Old Saxon.					d Frisi	an.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. Gen.	thria(ea, ie)	thria(ea, ie) †thrijô, thrijerô	thriu		thria thrira	thriu
Dat. Accus.	••	thrim thria(ea, ie)	thriu	thrê	thrium thria	thrim thriu

on a constant of the second of

with the strong declension of the adjectives, and that therefore a tabular view of their nominative forms in the different genders may here suffice:—

#### one

	Masc.	Pem.	News
M. H. Germ.	daer daer	cinia	cincy cincosis
N. H. Germ. Old English.	en (ou, e)	CALC CA	· <b>***</b>
New English.	one (en, e)		•
Swedish.	án `	· de	ide
Danish.	ėn –	ên.	ä
Middle Dutch.	<del>čn</del>	éa	ća
New Dutch	čn.	ĉa.	, és

Note.—We have observed before that in several Old Teutonic dialects the numeral 'one' was used in the sense of 'quidam;' hence it came to be used as the indefinite article in the Middle and New Teutonic languages, in exactly the same manner in which the Italian, Spanish and French languages derived their indefinite article from the Latin numeral un-us. Becoming a regular link in the structure of the language, it gradually lost its numeric distinctiveness, just as the definite article, originally a demon-Strative pronoun, lost much of its demonstrative force, and consequently it dwindled down in Modern English to the single owel a, while before vowels an reappears, and one was chosen express the number. In Modern German, where both the Tumeral and the article are rendered by ein, this word has, where t is used in its numeric force, more emphasis than in its position s indefinite article, where it is very slightly accented in conver-Nation, and in dialects becomes scarcely audible; so that it has Some sound similar to the English an or a. The Middle High German preserved the full accent or tone on the word ein. whether article or numeral, and used it even in rhymes, but the wear and tear of time and circumstances can be observed already in the license it gave to shorten the nominative and accusative forms, einer, einiu, einez—einen, eine, einez, into the simple ein. In this respect the Modern German is superior to its mother dialect, as it allows no abbreviation except in the nominative masculine and neuter.

The entire loss of inflexional forms, which dates back as far as the period of Old English, may coincide with the converthe numeral into the indefinite article; in Layare century), at any rate, we find full inflexions

nom. an, a; gen. masc. anes, annes, ones; fem. are: dat. masc. ane, anne; fem. are: acc. masc. anne, fem. ane, ane. In High German the numeral appears to have first been used as the

indefinite article by Otfried (ninth century).

This numeral has, whether used as such or as the indefinite article, abandoned its plural form, unless we reckon as such the modern German die einen (Fr. les uns), where it occupies the position of a substantive. A similar plural we observe in modern Swedish, where the 'tens' may be turned into substantives by connecting them with the definite or indefinite article, e. g. én étta, a number consisting of one; éttan, the number consisting of one; ettor-na, the numbers consisting of one; två-an, the number consisting of two. (Compare the Dutch eene zes, a number of six; drie zessen, three numbers of six.) These may be rendered by the Lat. singuli, bini, &c.

The English one preserves the genitive s where it is used as a

substantive, one's.

### two '

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	•	
M. H. Germ. N. H. Germ.		zwô zwei	zroei zroei		zweier, zweiger; dat. zwein zweier; dat. zwein

### three

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
M. H. Germ.		drî	driu	Gen. drier; dat. drin
N. H. Germ.	drei	drei	drei	Gen. dreier: dat dreien

Note.—In the other modern dialects these numerals have lost their inflexions altogether; where old inflexional forms are preserved, they have lost their old inflexional meaning, as N. Germ. zwei and zwo, N. Engl. two and twain (Shakesp.), Swed. två, tu, tvennes (2); tre, trenne (3); which latter forms do not indicate inflexional modifications, but render different shades of meaning, and are therefore used in different combinations.

#### ORDINALS.

The ordinal numerals are, with the exception of two, superlatives, though in certain peculiarities they differ from the superlatives of adjectives.

No.	Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.
1st	pra-thama-	πρώ-το-(s)	pri-mo-(s)	fru-ma-n-
2nd	dvi-tî-ya-	δεύ-τερο-(s)	sec-undo-(s)	an-thara
3rd	tri-tîya	τρί-το-(s)	ter-tio-(s)	thri-dja-n-
4th	chatur-tha (turya)	τέταρ-το-(s)	quar-to-(s)	(fidur-tha-n)
5th	(pancha-tha) pancha-ma	πέμπ-το-(s)	quin(c)-to-(s)	(fimf-ta-n)
6th	shash-tha-	ёк-то-(s)	sex-to-(s)	saihs-ta-n-
7th	sapta-ma-	<b>ξβδό</b> -μο-(s)	septi-mo-(s)	(sibun-da-n-)
8th	ash!a-ma	ογδό-ο- (ογδό-Fe)-(s)	octa-vo-(s)	ahtu-da-n-
9th	nava-ma-	ἔνα-το-(s)	no-no-(s)	niun-da-n-
10th	dasa-ma-	δέκα-το-(ς)	deci-mo-(s)	taihun-da-n-
11th	ekâ-nasa-	ἔν-δεκα-τυ-(s)	un-deci-mo-(s)	••
15th	pañcha-dasa-	πέπ-τος καὶ δέκατος	quintus decimus	fimfta taihunda-n-
<b>2</b> 0th	vimsatî-tama (vimsa)	elκοσ-7ό-(s)	vi-cesi-mo-(s)	wanting.
100th	sata-tama	ἐκατο-σ-τό-(s)	cent-esimo-(s)	wanting.

TABLE OF ORDINALS IN THE COGNATE LANGUAGES.

#### one—ten

The Sanskrit term for 'first' is pra-thama, which consists of the preposition pra (fore, before), and thama=tama; and of analogous formation is the Gr.  $\pi\rho\omega$ - $\tau$ o-, Dor.  $\pi\rho$ a- $\tau$ o-, showing the preposition and the suffix ta. The Lat. pri-mo- stands for pro-timo-, and this for pro-timo- (compare the Sanskrit suffix thama); and the Goth. fru-ma-n- for pra-ma-n- (for Sansk. p, Grimm's law), where we find the suffix ma instead of ta1.

The Sansk. dvi-ti-ya (second), dvi-tya is derived from dvi (2) and the suffix ta; the Gr.  $\delta\epsilon\acute{v}$   $\epsilon\rho\rho$ - is a comparative of  $\delta\epsilon\acute{v} = dva$  (2); the Lat. secundo- from the root sec, seq (sequi). The Northern languages form their term from a base An-tara-, as Goth. anthara (the other, the second), which is the comparative of the demonstrative pronominal base ana.

of the demonstrative pronominal base ana.

The term 'third' may be derived from a primitive tar-tya or tra-tra ('three,' and the base ta in its extended form tya); in the Sanak. tr-tiya we have in the form tr=tra, tar, the number

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare the chapter on the formation of the Superlative of Adjectives.

In Greek all the ordinals (with the exception of 7th and 8th) are formed from the cardinals, to which  $\tau o = ta$ , the suffix of the superlative, is added, e.g. Tol-To. The Lat. ter-tio and the Goth. thri-dja-n- are formed in analogy to the Sanskrit with the suffix tya.

The ordinal 'fourth' may in the Ursprache have been katvarta; Sansk. chatur-tha (tha=ta) or tur-ya=chatur-ya. The two suffixes ta and ya may occur in the combination tya, or each may form a superlative independently of the other. Gr. τέταρτο=  $\tau \epsilon \tau F a \rho - \tau o$ , Lat. quarto = quatuor-to, parallel to which we may assume a Goth. fidur-tha—the suffix ta throughout.

### five

Ursprache kakan-ta- or kank-ta, Sansk. panch-a-ma, Ved. pancha-tha, Gr. πέμπ-το-, Lat. quin(c)-to, Goth. fimf-ta.

#### six

The suffix ta throughout. Ursprache ksvaks-ta, Sansk. shashtha, Gr. έκ-το for έξ-το, Lat. sex-to, Goth. saihs-ta-n.

#### seven

Ursprache sapta-ma or sapta-ta, Sansk. sapta-ma, Gr. ξβδο-μο for †έπτο-μο (comp. the old and poet. έβδο-ματο), Lat. septimo, Goth. sibun-da-n.

### eight

Ursprache aktu-ma, Sansk. ashta-ma, Gr. ŏyòoo-=†òyòofo-= † ἀκτοΓο-, Lat. octávo-, probably from a primitive aktáv-a, where the suffix a only is added to the stem aktu, which appears very distinctly in the Goth. ahtu-da-n.

### nine

Ursprache nava-ma or nava-ta, Sansk. nava-ma, Gr. Eva-to,  $\epsilon$ νυα-το= $\dagger$   $\epsilon$ νε  $\epsilon$ α-το, Lat.  $n\acute{o}$ -no-= $\dagger$ nov-no-= $\dagger$ novi-no, Goth. niunda-n.

#### ten

The Sansk. daśa-ma and the Lat. deci-mo are compounds of the cardinal with the suffix ma, the Gr. δέκα-το, Goth. taihunda-n with the suffix ta.

### 11-19

The Sanskrit uses the compound of 'units' and 'tens' of the cardinal numbers, but daśan (10) drops its n, and thus the final a is treated as the suffix, e.g. eká-daśa (11th), dva-daśa (12th). The Latin language adopted the suffix ma, as un-deci-mo-, &c., the Greek and Gothic again the suffix ta, e.g. ἐν-δέκα-το (11th), Goth. fimf-ta-taihun-da-n; compare Lat. quintus decimus, where, as in Gothic, both the 'unit' and the 'ten' take the ordinal suffix.

#### **20**—90

The Sanskrit numerals of this class assume either the suffix tama, as  $vim\acute{s}ati$ -tama (20th), or they drop the terminational ti (t) of vinsati (20), and then put the final a as in the termination, just like the ordinals 11-19, e. g.  $vim\acute{s}a$  (20th). In Greek the suffix  $\tau o$  (ta) is added to the termination  $\kappa\acute{o}\tau\iota$ ,  $\kappa\acute{o}\nu\tau o$  of the cardinal numerals, which, after dropping the final vowel, yield the form  $\kappa\acute{o}\tau$ - $\tau o$ , from which arises  $\kappa\acute{o}\sigma$ - $\tau o$ , as  $\tau \rho\iota a\acute{o}\sigma\tau o$  (30th). The Latin suffix of ordinal numerals is timo, old form tumo (=ta + ma?), which is added to cinti, cinta after the latter has dropped the final vowel, and thus we get the form cent-tumo, and from this cesumo, cesimo, gesimo, as vi-cesi-mo (20th), quadra-gesi-mo (40th). In Gothic these ordinals are wanting, but in Old High German they are formed by adding the termination of the adjective superlative osta-n to the cardinals, as fior-zug-osta-n (40th).

### 100-1000

Sansk. sata-tama (100th) adds the suffixes ta and ma to the cardinal sata, Gr.  $\sigma\tau o = \iota \sigma - \tau o$ ;  $\iota \sigma$  corresponds to the primitive yans, a comparative, and  $\tau o = ta$ , the superlative termination, e. g.  $\epsilon \kappa a\tau o - \sigma \tau \delta$ . The Latin word cent-esimo is irregularly formed, as if the termination were esimo, whilst after the analogy of the 'tens' it should be expected to be censesimo from cent-tesimo. In Gothic these ordinals are wanting.

The words we have just mentioned, and which express the ordinal of 100 in the different languages are further used together with the units to form the compounds which denote the ordinals from 200 to 900.

#### 1000

Sansk. sahasra-tama, Gr. χιλιό-στο, Lat. mill-esimo, Gothic wanting.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare the chapter on the formation of the Superlative.

TABLE OF THE ORDINALS IN THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

German.	486.	need to, strater	41.14	oter.te	ANY.le	perho.te	olohem - te	4.(1).fr	neun-le	mhn-tr	Angela-te	ensanojo-etc	draiffig.ete	hundert-ste
₩. Ξ.	,	under	dritte	alor-ile	ANTE	albe fe	others with	ah(t)-te	nten-de		to jayla-anton.	encelnato-sete	driento-ent	schensig-fot
Old English. English. Old Frisian. Old Naxon. Dutch. Old Norso. Swedlish. Danish. O. H. Germ. M. H. G. German.	br tot br, our. brist.	sudar.	itri-tho	Nor-ch	Amy to	elhe-to	othen-du	uMo-do	ntun-to	sohan-to	fem-ton-de fem-ten-de Ansto Athanlo	erretuelo-delo	drieug-deto	sehanong-deto
Danish.	Arote	uniten(el)   under	tre dle	Ber.de	Jrm-te	4.14	sp-wasts	atten-de	nim.cle	thra-de	fem-ten-de	(yven-de	tredto-de	hundrede
Mwedlah.	Preta	andra	111.15	Ber-de	Am-te	24.10	epen-de	diton-de	nton-de	tlon-de	frm-ton-de	(hypon-de tyrem-de	trettlon-de	hundrade
Old Norme.	/pr-st-r	damar.r	Pri-de	Aur.Bi	Jim-16	11-11	olaun-Ul, olon-Ul	41.11	nhen-di	then-ch	Amlan-Al	tuttug-art-i	pritug-ast-i trettion-de tredie-de detoug-doto	honderd-ste   hundrad-ast-f   hundrade   hundrede
Dutch.		ture-cle	der-de	oter-cle	aft/-de	pre-de	seven-de	acht-ote	nepen-de	tlen-cle	olffiem-de	treintig-etc	dertly-ste	Aonderd-ete
Old Maxon.	Jormu, tristo	ancher, doar towe-de	thri-ddi	Aor. No	N.10	sehs-to	op-unqu	ahto-de	nform-do	tehan-do	:	:	:	:
Old Frinian.	formus, trosta formus, tristo aerete	dther, dr	thre-dda	Auwer-da	N-ta	ser-ta	op.un.qa	uchtun-da	ntupun-da	Han-da	J.C. tin-da	twintly-orta	thrittig-osta	honder-sta
English.		second) other	Mird	four-th	N-W	str.th	seven-th	etght-th	ninc-th	ten-th	Mom-th	troentl-e-th	thirti-e-th	hundred-th
Old English.	formeste, firste firstlerst) vorste, verste	ober (secunds) second) other other, or	pricite	jerte	300	otabe	nueve	etHete	nybe	201	anvege	tuentybe	prottige	:
Anglo-Saxon.	forma,	موه	.4	å							rveo-Ba	tventug-o-Sa	prittigo-Ba	100th Aund-teontigo-
Gothic.	fruma	2nd anthara over	3rd thri-dia pri-dda	4th (Adur-tha) Rover-Ba	5th (Am/-ta) A/-ta	saiheta	7th (sibun-da) seofo-Ba	8th ahtu-da eahto-Ba	niun-da	taihun-da	16th Ampa tat. filteo-Ba	wanting.	:	:
°Z	ä	Pu2	Z	4	5th	416 94	4 <u>t</u>	돭	96 P	10th	48 <u>0</u>	20ch	90th	100th

#### REMARKS ON THE TEUTONIC ORDINALS.

We have had occasion already to remark that the ordinals in the cognate languages, as well as in Gothic, are superlatives. The other Teutonic ordinals agree on the whole with the Gothic, and differ from it only in a few peculiarities which we are about to discuss.

#### one

The Gothic fruma-n has already been explained as an ancient superlative, to which would answer a primitive pra-ma-n (Goth. f for Sansk. p, Grimm's law), consisting of the preposition pra (fore, before, pro) and the superlative suffix ma. This fruma again undergoes another superlative inflexion by adding the comparative termination is (primitive yans), and the superlative suffix ta, frum-is-ta. This, no doubt, is a later formation, and originated at a time when the consciousness of the superlative force of fruma itself was lost. In the other Low German dialects the Gothic form is sometimes preserved, as in the A.S. fruma, or the u is weakened into o, or metathesis of the r takes place; hence A.S., O.S., and O. Fris. forma. Then we further find the more recent superlative termination with it, and thence we have, corresponding to the Gothic frumista, the A. S. fyrmesta, where y is the Umlaut of u, which is caused by the succeeding iin the termination ist, here weakened into est: fyrmesta again is contracted into fyrsta. The Frisian superlative form-est, the Old High German superlative vur-ist-er, and the O. N. fyr-st-r, are formed on the same principle. We might also explain the forms vur-ist-er, &c., as being directly derived from the preposition O. H. Germ. fora, Goth. faúra, the Teutonic garb in which the preposition pra, Gr. πρό commonly appears. Besides the ordinal fruma and its derivative forms we meet another word in the Teutonic tongues, exclusive of Gothic, in the shape of the A.S. er-est-a, O. H. Germ. ér-ist-ér, which is formed of the adverb A. S ær (Engl. ere), O. H. Germ. ér (Germ. ehe, eh-er), meaning 'fore,' 'before,' and the suffix ist, est (=is-ta), a form which undoubtedly is of a much later formation, since it is represented neither in Gothic nor the cognate languages.

From these Old Teutonic words their Middle and New Teutonic representatives will easily be explained, where mostly preposition and suffix are still clearly traceable, as O. Engl. formest-e, vor-ste, fir-st-e, M. H. Germ. vür-est-e, and er-st-e, Engl.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> About these suffixes see the chapter on Comparison, p. 248 sqq.

fir-st, er-st, Germ. er-st, Dutch eer-st, Swed. för-st-a, Dan. för-st-e, some of the modern tongues adopting both terms, others selecting one of the two.

#### two

The Gothic anthara, second, derives its origin from the demonstrative pronominal base ana and the comparative suffix tara, which consistently with Grimm's law is thara in Gothic. The Low German th is duely represented in the O. Fris. other, and in its softened form in the A.S. and O.S. S. These dialects, however, do not tolerate an n preceding the aspirate th, and therefore drop it regularly, hence A.S. over, O.S. over (by the side of O. H. Germ. andar). The Old Norse dialect, in its propensity for geminated forms, assimilates the d (for th) from andar into annar, whilst Old High German preserves the Gothic form most completely, and at the same time carries out the law of the mutation of sound, rendering the Goth. th by the media d, hence andar.

Few remarks will suffice with reference to the history of this form in the later Teutonic dialects. Old English and New English preserve the Anglo-Saxon form in the words over and other; but in Old English already it yields its ancient position to the Latin form secunde, which, as the N. Engl. second, supplants the Teutonic word altogether, the latter being exclusively used in the sense of alter, alius, a fate which also befalls the Germ. ander, replaced by zwei-te, Dutch twee-de. The Swedish and Danish languages alone not only preserve the ancient forms in their original position, but in retaining the media d, surpass in correctness even the Old Norse dialect — Swed. andra, Dan. anden.

### three

The Goth. thri-dja shows, like the same form in Sanskrit, the suffix tya, an extension of the superlative base ta. In the other Old Teutonic dialects we find the sibilant j of the base dja assimilated to the preceding d, hence the A. S. pri-dda, O. Fris. thre-dda, O. S. thri-ddi, O. H. Germ. dri-tto (d for Goth. th, and t for d, Grimm's law).

Old English preserves the A.S. pri-dde, which in New English introduces metathesis of the r in thir-d, so also Dutch der-de. The O.N. pri-di is surpassed in correctness of form by the Swed. trê-dje, Dan. tre-die. The Germ. dri-tte remains faithful to its Old High German source.

#### 4-19

The other Teutonic ordinals up to 'nineteen' are formed by the superlative suffix ta, the t of which in Gothic and the other Teutonic dialects ought to be rendered in Low German by th, Old High German by d, which, however, appears as t, d, and th, in the Old Teutonic dialects, either of these dentals being chosen agreeably to the preceding consonant. Thus, for example, it is a law common to all the ancient Teutonic languages that no other dental but the tenuis can follow upon the aspirate f; hence Goth. fimf-ta, A. S. fif-ta, O. Fris. fif-ta, O. S. fif-to, O. H. Germ. The omission of the m in the Low German dialects is analogous to the omission of the n before  $\delta$  which we have just mentioned. The O. N. fem-te drops the f. The same rule holds good for the Gothic saihs-ta, A. S. six-ta, O. H. Germ. sëhs-to, &c. As to the other numerals, it is Anglo-Saxon exclusively which adopts the aspirate, the regular representative in Low German of the tenuis in the cognate languages, A.S. &, O. Engl. p, N. Engl. th, as A. S. seof-Sa, O. Engl. seue-be, N. Engl. seven-th; while the other Low German dialects, like Gothic, prefer the media; so that Old High German also gets into a confusion, adopting the regular media d in for-do (4th), sibun-do (7th), and ahto-do (8th) only, in the remaining ordinals to.

The modern languages follow the footsteps of their mothers, but so that they introduce the favourite dental throughout, hence Engl. fifth for A. S. fif-ta; Germ. vier-te (4th) for O. H. Germ. fior-do, sieben-te (7th) for sibun-do. In the Swed. and Dan. fem-te (5th), sjet-te (6th) only, we find the Old Teutonic

tenuis of the O. N. fim-ti, set-ti preserved.

### 20-1000

From 'twenty' upwards the ordinals are wanting in Gothic, whilst in the other Teutonic dialects, Anglo-Saxon excepted, they are formed by the common superlative suffix 6st-, ast-, e.g. O. H. Germ. drizug-6sto (30th), O. Fris. thritig-osta, O. N. pritug-asti. Anglo-Saxon, on the other hand, forms the ordinals above like those below twenty, i. e. with the suffix 8a, which is added to the cardinal by means of the connective vowel 6. The Modern Teutonic dialects followed various courses; the High German remained faithful to its traditions, and adopted the O. H. Germ. ost in the weakened form est, contracted st, which

is also preserved in Dutch. The Scandinavian languages abandoned the ast of Old Norse and continued the ordinals above 'twenty' with the suffix de. Old English and New English preserve the A.S. &a, as A.S. prittig-o-&a, O. Engl. prytti-pe, N. Engl. thirti-(e)th.

#### OTHER NUMERALS.

#### OLD TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

In all the Teutonic dialects we have, besides the cardinal two, the numeral both, answering to the Gr. ἀμφότεροι, Lat. ambo. It appears in Gothic as bái, O. S. bêδja, O. N. baδir, O. Fris. bêthe, A. S. bêgen (bá, bu). The declension, it will be seen, is very defective in Gothic.

Goth		An	glo-Saxo	on.	Old Saxon.			
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut
Nom. $\left\{ egin{array}{c} bai \ baj \delta > s \end{array} \right\}$	wanting.	ba	bêgen	bâ	ðu.	béGja	bêSja	bebju
Gen				bega, begre	2		bêberê	
Dat. $\begin{cases} baim \\ baj\delta b-um \end{cases}$				bâm, bæm			bêHjun	
Accus. bans	١	ba	bêgen	bâ	bu	bêðja	béðja	l bêðju

	Old Frisian.				ld Nors	O. H. Germ.			
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	bêthe	bêthe	bêtha	bâðir	bâðar	bæði	pêdê	pêdô	pédiu
Gen.	Gen. bêthera			beggja			pêdêrô		
Dat.		bêtha			bâðum			pêdêm	
Accus.	bêlhe	bêthe	bêtha	bâða	bâ <b>ðar</b>	bæði	pêdê	pêdô	pêdiu

In Anglo-Saxon some forms of this word combine occasionally with the numeral 'two,' e. g. batwa=ba (both) +twa (two), neut. butu; they occur also declined, e. g. dat. bam twam.

Distributive numerals we have in the Goth. tveinaih, occurring in the accus. fem. tveihnôs; O. H. Germ. zwéné, which was adopted to supply the cardinal numeral 'two'—O. N. einn,

tvennr, prennr, fern: plur. of tvennr, prennr, is tvennir, tvennar, tvenn, &c.; they may be used in a distributive or multiplicative signification, so that tvennr may mean binus and duplus, prennr = trinus and triplex.

Multiplicatives are formed in Gothic by falp-s (fold), fem. falpa, neut. falp. This Gothic falp is in Anglo-Saxon feald, Old Saxon and Old Frisian fald, Old Norse fald-r, Old High German falt. Examples:—Goth. ain-falp-s, one-fold, simple; A. S. án-feald, O. S. and O. Fris. én-fald, O. N. ein-fald-r, O. H. Germ. ein-falt-ér, Goth. fidur-falp-s, four-fold; A. S. twi-feald, two-fold; O. S. tehin-fald, ten-fold; O. Fris. thri-fald, three-fold; O. N. fimm-fald-r, five-fold; O. H. Germ. dri-falt, three-fold.

Numeral adverbs answering to the question quoties? how often? are not met with in Gothic, but some occur in the other old dialects.

#### Examples:-

	SEMEL.	BIS.	TER.
O. H. Ger.	eines, einest	zwiror, zwiro, zwiron	driror
AngSax.	æne (ânes)	twiva	þríwa
Old Saxon	ênes `	twiwa	thrijo, thriwo
Old Frisian	ênis, ênes (ense)	twira	thrîa
Old Norse	cinna `	tysvar	þrysvar

To supply the wanting numeral adverbs, the Low German languages, Gothic included, use the dative of the word sinp-, meaning way, turn, time, punctum temporis, Goth. sinha, A. S. and O.S. sip (n dropped on account of the succeeding aspirate 8), O. Fris. seth (for sith, sinth), O. N. sinn (the final & assimilated to the preceding n), while Old High German uses for the same purpose the substantive stunta, stunt (punctum temporis, hour, comp. Germ. stunde), a word which is occasionally used in Old Frisian Examples: — Goth. ainamma sinha, one time, once; anparamma sinha, a second time; tváim sinham, two times, twice. A. S. on anne sid, once; eahtodan side, for the eighth time; eahta sí don, eight times. O. S. sidun sí dun, seven times; tehan sí dun, ten times. O. Fris. tian séthen or tian stunda, ten times. O. N. átta sinnum, eight times; tuttugu sinnum, twenty times. O. H. Germ. for-stunt, four times; zëhan-stunt, ten times, and drim stuntóm, drió stuntó, three times.

There is another kind of numeral adverbs in the Teutonic languages, which express companionship of as many persons as are indicated by the numeral. For this purpose the Anglo-Saxon language makes use of the indefinite pronoun sum, which it adds to the respective cardinals, e.g. eode eahta-sum, we went eight

together, including myself: eahta-sum can be rendered in German by one word, selb-achter. This Germ. selb (meaning 'self') has its forerunner in the O. H. Germ. selp, selb, e. g. selp-ander (Germ. selb-ander, i. e. we were two together, I was the second); selp-dritto, selb-dritt, we were three together, I was the third. In Frisian and Old Saxon sum is used as in Anglo-Saxon.

The Old Norse has some forms answering to the Latin numeral adjectives in -arius, e.g. prilug-r, tricenarius; sextug-r, sexagen-

arius.

#### MIDDLE AND MODERN TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

The root ba is preserved in the modern dialects, and appears in the Engl. both, from O. E. beipe, bope for bege, bo, A. S. begen, bá, bu. The Germ. beide, M. H. Germ. beide (for béde), are derived from the Old High German neuter form beidiu (for bédiu); the Swed. både, Dan. baade, from the O. N. báðir; Dutch beede, O. S. béðja.

The distributive numerals answering to the question 'how often?' have disappeared from all Modern Teutonic languages except the English, where they are preserved in the forms once, twice, thrice. The word once is derived from the O. Engl. oones (exchanging the sibilant c for s), A. S. ánes, áne, ane; twice from O. Engl. twies, twie, with which corresponds the A. S. twiwa; but still more so the O. Fris. twira=twisa and the O. N. tysvar, from which it becomes sufficiently evident that the full form must have been twiswa, the s of which was dropped in Anglo-Saxon, but restored in Old English from some other source, perhaps Old Frisian or Old Norse. The same case we have in thrice, O. Engl. thries for thrie, A. S. priwa, O. N. prysvar.

The Modern Teutonic languages being deprived of these numeral adverbs have to supply them by circumscriptive forms, an expedient adopted already in Old Teutonic dialects; but the word sinpa, sind, sind, has disappeared, and others have taken its place in the different modern tongues. (The Old Norse sind in the Danish cardinals, see above.) The English makes use of the word 'time': three times, four times, five times, &c. The equivalents in the German and Dutch languages are mal, maal respectively, as cin-mal, cen-maal; zwei-mal, twee-maal; drei-maal, drie-maal, &c. The word mâl which occurs in Old High German already, and in the Goth. mél, means 'punctum,' a point, and hence 'punctum temporis,' a point of time, or moment—a meaning which corresponds to that of the words sinpa and stunt used in the Old Teutonic dialects. It is certain that this form was

adopted in High German before Luther's time; but in Middle High German the O. H. Germ. stunt is used for the same purpose.

The Scandinavian languages employ for the same purpose the word gang, which originally means walk, step, turn, and hence time; e.g. Swed. engang, två gånger, tre gånger; Dan. éngang,

to gange, tre gange.

The A. S. sum, mentioned above, is no longer used in English with its peculiar meaning when in combination with cardinals; and in German too the O. H. Germ. sëlb has disappeared altogether, except in the term selbander, we two together: selb-dritt, &c., are out of fashion.

Multiplicatives are formed in the modern as well as in the ancient dialects by the termination fold, Germ. falt, fältig, Dutch voudig; e.g. three-fold, drei-fältig, drie-voudig; six-fold,

sechs-fältig, zes-voudig.

Fractions are rendered either by the ordinals, as in English and Dutch—e. g. a fourth, een vierde; a twelfth, een twaalfde—or by adding the word deal to the cardinal, as is done in the Germ. tel = theil, and the Danish and Swedish deel, dél, e. g. Germ. vier-tel=vier-theil, Dan. en fjerde-deel, Swed. én fjerde-dél.

### COMPARISONS.

#### THE COGNATE LANGUAGES.

#### COMPARATIVE BASES.

#### 1. Formations with the suffix -yans.

The primitive suffix yans is perhaps the modification of a still more ancient yant, and related to the suffixes ant, mant, vant. In the last of the three just mentioned it also occurs that the t is replaced by s, and so it may be in yans for yant. This suffix is always joined directly to the root and limited to certain roots, as nav-a, new, comp. nav-yans; svad-u, sweet, svad-yans.

In Sanskrit the primitive yans becomes yas or iyas, e.g. nava, new, comp. nav-yas; bhu-ri, much, bhu-yas; yuvan, young,

yav-iyas; mah, great, mah-iyas.

The Greek language drops the s of yans, changes y into i, or combines it with the preceding consonant into  $\sigma\sigma$  or  $\zeta$ ; e.g.  $\kappa \alpha \kappa$ -6-, bad, comp.  $\kappa \dot{\alpha} \kappa$ -100-;  $\kappa \alpha \kappa (\omega v)$ ;  $\dot{\epsilon} \lambda \alpha \chi$ -0, light, levis,  $\dot{\epsilon} \lambda \alpha \sigma \sigma \sigma v$ , for  $\dot{\epsilon} \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \alpha \chi$ -100-;  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\gamma}$ -as,  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \gamma$ -d $\lambda os$ , great,  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} i \dot{\zeta} \omega v$  for  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \gamma$ -100;  $\pi o \dot{\lambda}$ -0, much,  $\pi \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \hat{\epsilon} ov$ -, primitive form pra-yans from par-u; root pra-par, to fill;  $\mu \dot{\epsilon}$ - $\hat{\epsilon} ov$ -, less, primitive form ma-yans from a root ma, commonly weakened to mi (comp. Lat. mi-nus).

In Latin the primitive yans became yons, -ions, -ios, the final s yielding later on to rhotacism which produced the form -ior; but the original s was always preserved in the neuter -ius = yus (comp. Sansk. yás). Examples:—mag-no-, great, comp. má-jor, for †mag-ior, neut. ma-jus=†mag-ius; plus, more, from plous=†plo-ius (comp.  $\pi\lambda\epsilon$ -îov) primitive pra-yans, root pra=par, to fill; plures=pleores=†ple-ior-es, comp. of ple-ro-, plerus. ple-no-, full, root ple=plo=pra=par, to fill; minor, less, = min-ior, min-us=min-ius, root min=man, ma; facil-ior comp. of facil-i-, root fac.

The Gothic comparative terminations are -is, -6s, both derived from yans: is = yas (i = ya) 6s = a-as (Goth. 6 = a + a) = a-yas = a-yans. To these comparative bases is added the termination an in the masculine, jan (=yan) in the feminine form of the adjec-

tive, so that the comparative suffix in Gothic is izan, fem. izjan, izein (final s is softened into z in the middle of the word),  $-\delta zan$ , fem. -ozjan,  $-\delta zein$ . Examples:—manag-izan-, nom. sing. masc. managiza, neut. managizó ( $\delta = an$ ), fem. managizei, theme manega, nom. sing. manegs, (much, many); maizan-= mak-izan (compare Lat. mag-is, major, mag-ior, Gr.  $\mu \epsilon \gamma$ -iov-), comparative of theme mik-ila-, nom. sing. mikils, great, root mik, Lat. mag, Gr.  $\mu \epsilon \gamma$ , Sansk. mah, primitive mag, great. In the adverbial form of this word the case termination has disappeared, and it therefore ends in s: mais= Lat. mag-is; hauh-is, comparative hauh-izan-, theme hauha-, nom. sing. hauhs, high; even the i of is is sometimes dropped: min-s, adverbial comparative of min-iza, less (comp. Lat. min-us for min-ius).

#### 2. Formations with the suffixes -tara and -ra.

These suffixes are chiefly used in Sanskrit and Greek for the formation of the comparative; -tara is probably a compound of the frequently occurring suffixes ta and ra. The latter by itself expresses comparison, e.g. Sansk. ava-ra, inferior, comp. of the preposition ava, de, of, from; apa-ra, after, of prep. apa, ab, of, from. Compare with these examples the Latin sup-eru-s (sup-er), inf-eru-s (inf-er), which have the ancient comparative suffix ra. The consciousness however of the comparative force of the termination er being lost, the common comparative suffix ior was superadded, so that in the Latin superior, inferior, we have in fact double comparatives.

tara forms in the Ursprache the very old stem an-tara, interior, from the demonstrative base ana-, root an; and ka-tara, uter, from the interrogative base and root ka.

This suffix appears in Sanskrit as the masculine termination -taras, fem. -tara, and is simply added to the nominal stem, e.g. punya-tara, comp. of punya, pure; ka-tara (uter) of ka, quis; ya-tara (uter) of the relative ya, qui; i-tara, other, from demonstrative i, is; an-tara, exterior.

The comparative base tara is rendered in Greek by  $-r\epsilon\rho o$ , e.g.  $\pi \dot{o} - \tau\epsilon\rho o - \kappa \dot{o} - \tau\epsilon\rho o$ , uter, root  $\pi o$ ,  $\kappa o$ , = Sansk. ka;  $\kappa o v \phi \dot{o} - \tau\epsilon\rho o$ , comp. of  $\kappa o \hat{v} \phi o$ , light, levis;  $\sigma o \phi \dot{\omega} - \tau\epsilon\rho o$  ( $\omega$  on account of the preceding short syllable). The termination  $\epsilon \sigma - \tau\epsilon\rho o$  seems to have been adopted from the adjectives ending in  $\epsilon \sigma$ , as in  $\sigma a \phi \dot{\epsilon} \sigma - \tau\epsilon\rho o$  of  $\sigma a \phi \dot{\eta} s$ , to other adjectives as the combining syllable between the root and the termination, e.g.  $\epsilon \dot{v} \delta a \mu o v - \epsilon\rho o$  of  $\epsilon \dot{v} \delta a \mu o v - \epsilon\rho o$  must be kept distinct altogether from the preceding, it being a compound of  $\iota \sigma$ , the shortest

contracted form of years, and repo = tars, e.g. hah-io-repo-, com-

parative of AdAo-, talkative.

In Latin the suffix turn is very rare. It occurs in w-tero=
cu-tero, quo-tero, root kn. ko, Gr. no, m, Sansk. ka; u-ter, fem.
u-tri, neut. u-tro-m elision of e); in-ter, den-ter. Further examples are:—min-in-tero-, minor, minister, servant, from the root
min, small; mag-in-tero-, major, master, from the root mag, great;
sin-in-tero-, left,—examples where we find, as in the Greek hadlo-repo, the suffixes yini + tura.

In Gothic the suffix tara does not occur frequently. It is used in the following words:—an-thara-, nom. sing. an-thar, other, second, where the Gothic th represents the Sansk. t (see Grimm's law); hra-thara, nom. sing. hra-thar, uter, whether, h for Sansk. k (Grimm's law), r introduced after h (see the respective letters); hin-dar, hinder, posterior; af-tra, after, retro, prepaf, of; hra-thró, whither, theme hra-thra-=primitive ka-tara, tha-thró, thither, primitive ta-tara; hra-dré, whither; hi-dré, hither, primitive ki-tara.

#### SUPERLATIVE BASES.

### 1. Formations with the suffix -ta.

The regular suffixes used in the formation of the superlative are ta and ma (which have other functions besides this), and their combinations tama, mata, tata, which, as secondary suffixes are sometimes added to the comparative.

ta is used chiefly in the formation of ordinals. It forms superlatives by joining the comparative suffix yans. The reduplicated ta = tata is in Greek the regular termination of the superlative

by the side of the comparative in tara.

The primitive language either used the full form in yans-ta, as magh-yans-ta (μέγιστος), ak-yans-ta (ὅκιστος), or the shortened form of yans, i. e. is, e. g. magh-is-ta, ak-is-ta. Schleicher decides in favour of the former.

In Sanskrit the superlative suffix ta is joined to the comparative yas, -iyas, shortened in is, and the combination is-ta becomes ish-tha, e.g. mah-ishtha, greatest, of root mah; gar-ishtha, superl. of guru, heavy.

The Greek language joins the superlative  $\tau_0$  (=ta) to the comparative base  $\iota\sigma$  (yans), e.g.  $\kappa d\kappa - \iota\sigma - \tau_0$ ,  $\eta \delta - \iota\sigma - \tau_0$ ,  $\eta \delta - \iota\sigma - \tau_0$ . The reduplicated form tata, Gr.  $\tau a \tau_0$ , of this suffix,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See the respective chapter, p. 237 sqq.

forms the regular superlative to the comparatives in tara, Gr. τερο, e.g. κουφό-τατο-, σοφώ-τατο-, εὐδαιμον-έσ-τατο-, λαλ-ίσ-τατο-.

The Latin renders the suffix ta by to, tu, but it is not used in the superlative, where mo (Sansk. ma), and simo, timo (the primitive ta-ma) have the preference, e.g. long-is-simo-, brev-is-simo-,

op-ti-mo- (see below).

The primitive ta is rendered in Gothic by da-n, the n being an addition peculiar to the Teutonic tongues, and d standing irregularly for th, which should represent the Sansk. t (see Grimm's law). Here again the superlative is added to the comparative case -is, -ós, and the d of da is then replaced by t, on account of the preceding s (see the chapter on Consonants), e. g. manag-is-ta, hauh-is-ta, minn-is-ta, ma-is-ta, arm-ós-ta.

### 2. Formations with the suffix -ma.

It occurs in:—the Sansk. ava-má, lowest, last, from prep. áva, of a demonstrative base; madhya-má, medius; para-má, furthest; ádi-ma, first, from ádi, beginning; and in many ordinals.

In Greek it is very rare; it occurs in  $\delta\beta\delta\delta$ - $\mu\alpha\tau$ o- (combined ma + ta, and with the remarkable change of  $\pi\tau$  into  $\beta\delta$ ) and in

πύ-ματο-, last.

ma is the favourite suffix in the Latin superlative, where it appears as mo, e.g. sum-mo-=sup-mo-, like the comparative sup-er, from sup (sub); infi-mo-, comp. inf-ero-; mini-mo-, comp. min-or; pluri-mo-, old form plusi-mo-=nlo-is-umo-, where we have again the primitive yans+ma. Perhaps it may come from a primitive Latin form plo-yus-u-mo-, as plus=plous=plo-yus, and min-us=min-yus.

It occurs rarely in Gothic, and where it does it is accompanied by the Teutonic final n, e.g. innu-ma-n, intimus, inmost; fru-ma-n, foremost, first, and with an additional superlative suffix in fru-m-is-ta, an example which shows that the consciousness of the superlative force of the suffix ma must have been lost at an early time.

### 3. Formations with the suffix ta-ma.

It is in Sanskrit the regular superlative termination by the side of the comparative in tara, as ka-tamá, which out of many, interrogative; ya-tamá, which out of many, relative.

In Greek it is wanting.

The Latin language uses it as the regular superlative termination, where the primitive tama is rendered by simo, sumo, =

timo, tumo, and commonly added to the comparative suffix is (primitive yans), e.g. long-is-simo-, brev-is-simo-, op-timo-, op-timomo-; ul-timo-, in-timo-, maximo-= ${}^{\dagger}mag$ -simo-= ${}^{\dagger}mag$ -timo-. Adjectives which have dropped their final vowel and end in r or l join the suffix timo, simo, immediately to the root, as veter-rimo- for \*veter-simo-, \*veter-timo-, stem veter; pulcher-rimo-, stem pulchero-, facil-limo- for †facil-simo-, †facil-timo-. But these superlatives may be explained in another manner, so as to derive them from a form veter-is-timo, vetersimo-, veterrimo-, &c.

The suffix tama appears in Gothic under the form du-ma-n (compare Lat. tumo in op-tumo-), where we find d inorganic in the place of th to represent the Sansk. t and the final n superadded, e.g. af-tu-ma-n, aft-most, last, to which a further superlative suffix is added in af-tu-m-is-ta-n, a double superlative containing four suffixes which are added to the preposition af, namely, tama-yans-ta; thus also hin-du-ma-n, hindmost, latest, last, and

hin-du-m-is-ta-n, if-tu-ma-n, the next, following.

#### OLD TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

#### 1. THE COMPARATIVE.

As we have already stated, the Gothic comparative of the adjectives is formed by the terminations is and os, which answer to the Sanskrit suffix yas, primitive yans, the final s being softened into z when the comparative suffix is followed by a termination, hence izan,  $\delta zan$ , of which either one or the other is used, the selection being made perhaps on euphonic rather than While the termination for the masc. and grammatical grounds. neut is an, the fem. adopts jan, hence ein.

#### Examples:—

manags, much, many, theme manega; comparative manag-izan-, nom. sing. masc. managiza, fem. managizei, neut. managizó (ô =an).

blinds, blind, theme blinda; comparative blind-ozan-, nom. sing. masc. blindôza, fem. blindôzei, neut. blindôzo.

azets, light, easy, theme azeta; comparative azet-izan-, nom. sing. masc. azetiza, fem. azetizei, neut. azetizó.

frőþs, prudent, wise, theme fróda; comparative fród-ózan-,

nom. sing. masc. frôdôza, fem. frôdôzei, neut. frôdôzô.

In the other Teutonic dialects rhotacism has taken place throughout, that is, the s of the terminations is and os has been High German ir and  $\delta r$ , in Old Saxon ir and  $\delta r$ , in Old Frisian ir and  $\delta r$ , whilst Anglo-Saxon has dropped the vowel altogether and merely puts r. But we can prove that this dialect also originally used both ir and  $\delta r$ , because, wherever the former occurred, it caused the Umlaut of its adjective, which Umlaut remained after the i of ir had been dropped; the termination  $\delta r$ , on the other hand, never caused Umlaut. Similar is the case in Old Norse, where ar stands for  $\delta r$ , Goth.  $\delta s$ , and r for ir, Goth. is, the latter being always distinct by the Umlaut which the i of the suffix r, originally ir, had caused.

#### Examples:-

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Goth.	blinds,	, 6	line	la,	comp.	blind-6z-a, blind-6z-ei, blind-6z-6.
O.H.G.						plint-or-o, plint-or-a, plint-or-a.
O.S.	blind				33	blind-or-o, blind-or-a, blind-or-a.
A.S.	blind				"	blind-r-a, &c.
O. Fris.	blind				"	blind-or-a, or blind-er-a, or blind-r-a.
O. N.	blindr				"	blind-ar-i, blind-ar-i, blind-ar-a.

# REMARKS ON THE COMPARATIVE FORM IN THE DIFFERENT DIALECTS.

1. Old High German allows of the assimilation of the vowel in the suffixes  $\delta r$  and ir to the vowel of the succeeding termination, e.g. plintara for plintara, richoro for richiro, where  $\delta$  has been assimilated to the succeeding a, and i to the succeeding o. The i of ir may cause the Umlaut of the vowel in the preceding

svllable.

2. Old Saxon may, like Anglo-Saxon, drop the *i* of *ir* altogether, or weaken it into *e*, and weaken the *ô* of *ôr* into *a*; e. g. bet-er-a for bet-ir-a, ald-r-o for ald-ir-o, jung-ar-o for jung-ôr-o, for which we even find jung-r-o, so that it would appear, as if by the side of jung-ôr-o, a comparative jung-ir-o had been in use. It is a peculiarity of the Old Saxon dialect that it likes to preserve the derivative spirant *j* even before the terminations, so that from the word suôti, theme suotja, sweet, we have the comparative suôtj-er-a and suôt-er-a, wôðj-er-a and wôð-er-a from wôði, wôðja, joyful. Gothic and Old High German never allow this derivative spirant to appear before the comparative suffixes.

3. Anglo-Saxon comparatives in ir are—yld-r-a from eald, old; leng-r-a from lang, long: in 6r—earm-r-a from earm, poor (Germ. arm); brád-r-a from brád, broad; the former causing the Umlaut

(on account of the i), the latter not.

4. Old Frisian often weakens the forms ir and or into er, the former being always recognizable by the Umlaut it causes in the preceding syllable, e.g. alt, old, comp. eld-er-a; sometimes nothing but the consonant of the suffix remained, as fir, far, comp. fer-r-a; hách, high, comp. hag-r-a for hag-er-a.

5. Old Norse also drops the *i* of *ir*, which however, just as in the other dialects, leaves the traces of its original presence behind by the Umlaut it has caused in the preceding syllable; e.g. full-r, full, comp. fyll-r-i; diup-r, deep, comp. dip-r-i.

6. All the comparatives in all the dialects have the inflections

of the weak declension.

#### 2. THE SUPERLATIVE.

In the Teutonic dialects the superlative is formed just as in Gothic and some of the cognate languages, by adding the superlative suffix ta to the comparative suffix yans, and this primitive yans-ta (Sansk. is-ta) appears in Gothic as is-ta or os-ta (s reinstated for z on account of the following t, and t instead of the regular d, or rather th, on account of the preceding s), and these combined suffixes ista, ôsta, appear in all the Teutonic dialects with modifications similar to those which affect the comparative terminations, i.e. the i of ist being often weakened into e or dropped altogether, and the o of ost weakened into a. From what we have just stated it will be self-evident that the superlative in ist answers to the comparative in ir, and the superlative in  $\delta st$  to the comparative in  $\delta r$ . Concerning the different Teutonic dialects our remarks may be brief. In Anglo-Saxon the superlative terminations resume their ancient vowels in est (=ist) and ost, while the comparative suffix r had dropped both i and o; e.g. leng-est, sup. of lang; earm-ost, sup. of earm. But on the other hand, Anglo-Saxon does not strictly keep apart the terminations ist and ost for the comparatives ir and or respectively. but frequently uses one for the other, as geong-ost for gyng-est, and vice versa leóf-est for leóf-ost. In Old Frisian the vowel of the superlative suffix is rarely dropped, but it may appear in various modifications as ist, and est, and ast. Old Norse is the only dialect which regularly drops the vowel of the suffix ist, while it changes ost into ast; e.g. sal-l, happy, sup. sal-st-r; full-r, full, sup. fyl-st-r; fróð-r, prudent, sup. fróð-ast-r.

Where i in the comparative causes Umlaut, it does the same in the superlative; e. g. O. N. full-r, comp. fyll-r-i, sup. fyl-st-r;

A. S. eald, eld-r-a, eld-est.

The superlative may follow both the weak and strong declensions.

	Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Gothic	hauhs, high	hauh-iz-an-	hauh-ist-a-
	blinds, blind	blind-bz-an-	blind-ôst-a-
O. H. G.	guot, good plint, blind	pez-ir-o- plint-ôr-o-	pezz-ist-o- plint-ôst-o-
O. Sax.	ald, old	ald-ir-o-, ald-r-o-	ald-ist-o-
	skôni, fair	scônj-or-o-	scônj-ôst-
A. S.	eald, old	yld-r-a	yld-est
	earm, poor	earm-r-a	earm-ost
O. Fris.	hách, high	hâg-er-a, hâg-r-a	hâg-ist
	skêne, fair	skên-r-a (or-a)	skên-ast
O. Norse	fullr, full	fyll-r-i	fyl-st-r
	fr88-r, prudent	frô8-ar-i	fröð-ast-r.

TABLE OF COMPARISONS.

#### 3. Anomalous Forms.

We have had an opportunity already to mention that there are various suffixes for the comparative as well as superlative, out of which the different cognate languages select one or another. Thus the Teutonic dialects prefer the suffix yans for the formation of the regular comparative, while Greek chooses the suffix  $tara\ (\tau\epsilon\rho\rho-)$ ; the former use the suffix  $ta\ added$  to  $yans\ in$  order to form the superlative, whilst Latin, for the same purpose, selects the suffix  $tama\ (tumo,\ timo)$  added to is=yans, hence issimo-. But by the side of the common forms of comparatives and superlatives ending in the usual suffixes, the Teutonic languages make, like all others, occasional use of other suffixes for the formation of comparatives and superlatives.

The comparative suffix tara we meet in the Goth. an-thara, an-thar, other, which is modified in the O. H. Germ. an-dar, Germ. an-der, A. S. &Ser, Engl. other; Goth. hva-thar, uter, whether, A. S. hwäder, Engl. whether; Goth. hva-thrô, A. S. hwäder, Engl. whither; Goth. tha-thrô, A. S. thider, Engl. thither; Goth. hin-dar, A. S. hinder; aftra (af preposition of, ab, de, retro), A. S. äfter, Engl. after.

Far more common are superlatives formed not by the regular suffix yans + ta, but by the suffix ma simply, or by the suffixes ta-ma.

The simple suffix ma we have in the Goth. fru-ma- (compare fru with the Sansk. preposition pra, Lat. pro), A.S. for-m-a, O. Fris. for-m-a, first (compare Lat. pri-mo-); Goth. innu-ma-, A.S. inne-ma, intimus; Goth. aúhu-ma-, superus. The suffix

tama occurs in the Goth. if-tuma (proximus, sequens), af-tuma (ultimus), hin-duma- (postremus); and in the A.S. hin-dema (ultimus), and ût-ema (extimus), sid-ema (novissimus, ultimus), lät-ema (ultimus) nio-ema (infimus), which very probably have dropped the d in the suffix dema (=tama) because it followed a These combinations do not occur in the other Teutonic dental. They take the inflexions of the weak declension. Gothic already the superlative force of these suffixes must have been lost at an early date, whence it occurs that these superlatives assume the regular terminations of comparison as well; e.g. Goth. fruman, comp. frum-oz-a, sup. frum-ist-s; aftuman, aftumists; hinduman, hindumists. In the same manner are formed the Anglo-Saxon superlatives formest or fyrmest from forma; medema (medius), comp. medemra, sup. medemest; útema, sup. Atemest or ytemest; nidema, sup. nidemast. It is in general a characteristic feature of Teutonic comparison to double its suffixes, in order perhaps to create greater emphasis. Such double comparatives we have in the Goth. vairsiza (which ought to be vairiza), A.S. vyrsa, worse, where vyr already is a comparative, and sa the ancient comparative s of iza. (Compare O. N. ver-ri where the suffix s has submitted to rhotacism.) Thus, again, we find in O. H. Germ. bezërôro for the simple comp. bezir, and mêrôro for simple mêro, which sounds, as if we said betterer, morer, and as some do say lesser, worser.

Deserving of special notice are the Anglo-Saxon double superlatives which are derived by adding the superlative suffix est or ost to the old superlative ending in ma, dema, e. g. hin-dem-est from hin-dema, ill-em-est from ill-ema, lät-em-est from lät-ema, si8-em-est from si8-ema. Compare the English hindmost, utmost, foremost, &c., superlatives which are no compounds with most (maximus), but have gradually grown out of the m-est of the foregoing Anglo-Saxon superlatives.

#### 4. DEFECTIVE COMPARISONS.

	Gothic.	O. H. G.	o. s.	Anglo-Saxon.	Old Frisian.	O. N.
	gôd-s p. bat iza bat-ist-s	guot peziro pezzist-êr	gôd betiro best	god betera (betra) betost (betst)	gôd betera best	gôd betri beztr
Malus. Pos Con Sun	. ubil-s np. rair-s-iza . rair-s-ist-s	ubil wirsiro	ubil wirso	yfel wyrsa	evel wirra (werra)	{ illr rândr verri verstr

	Gothic.	O. H. G.	O. Sax.	A. S.	Old Frisian.	0. N.
Parvus.						
Pos.	leitil-s	luzil	luttil	lytel	lit <b>i</b> k	litill
Comp.	minn-iza	minniro		lässa	lessa (minnira)	minni
Sup.	minn-isl-s	minnist-êr	minnist	läst	{ litekest (leist) minast lerest	minstr
Magnus (r	nultus). 🗸 ˈ	ı		•	, (	
Pos. Comp. Sup.	mikil-s maiza maist-s	mihhil mêro meist-ê <del>r</del>	mikil mêro mêst	mycel mâra mæst	(grât) mâra mâst	mikill meiri meistr

In the Gothic máiza (=mak-iza), máists, the k of the root mik in mik-il-s has been dropped, and the primitive a reappeared (comp. Lat. root mag, Sansk. mak). The other dialects still more modify the Gothic máiza by contractions, &c., as O. H. Germ. méro, A. S. mára, where the s suffers rhotacism and the Gothic diphthong is represented by the long é and d<sup>2</sup>. The O. S. lat, late (comp. latóro), has contracted the superlative into last, lezt (=let-ist-o). The Anglo-Saxon comparative lässa of lytel stands for minra, which is wanting in this dialect. This comparative may be explained by the Goth. lasiv-óz-a (infirmior), comp. of lasiv-s (infirmus).

The O. Fris. mára (more, greater) is deprived of the positive mikel which we find in the other dialects. There is in this dialect a form let, which in the positive signifies piger, tardus; in the comp. letera, tardior, posterior; in the sup. letast, contracted lest, tardissimus, ultimus. The comparative fer-ra (dexter) and the superlative fer-ost, fer-est are derived from the preposition fora (prae, pro). The Old Norse has a few other comparisons for which we find no analogies in the other dialects. These are, margr (multus), comp. fleiri, sup. fleistr; gamall (old), comp. eldri, sup. elztr; ûngr (young), comp. yngri, sup. nystr, from ngr.

The explanation of the defective comparisons, commonly called irregular, is the same as that which we give of the defective comparisons in Greek and Latin. There are certain adjectives which only occur in the positive, without being able to form a comparative or superlative; there are others which have a comparative, or superlative, or both, but are devoid of a positive, which, though we may still be able to trace to its probable form, has become obsolete or fallen out of use altogether. We

<sup>2</sup> Compare the Table of Gradations, p. 24.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Grimm assumes that the positive may have been mag-s.

have a positive of the adjective good, but a comparative and superlative of it are wanting. We therefore lay hold of the comparative better and the superlative best to supply the meaning of a 'gooder' and 'goodest' which are forbidden forms. But on the other hand the positive good returns the compliment and supplies that in which the forms better and best are deficient, namely a positive. There is nothing irregular in all this; better and best are regular forms, and good is a regular form, but both parties are defective in their comparison and must therefore supply each other wherein they are wanting.

The Goth. god-s, batiza, batists (good, better, best), has its equivalent and analogous forms in all other Teutonic dialects, as will be seen from our Table of Defective Comparisons. These comparative and superlative forms would require a positive which might be in Goth. †bat-s, O. H. Germ. †pag (comp. pegir), and this positive would be a relation to the Gothic verb batas, pret.

bot, which signifies 'to be useful,' 'to be good.'

The Goth. ubils, valreiza, valreists (evil, worse, worst) is also represented in the other Teutonic dialects. As the base of this comparative form there must have been some word which was related to the M. H. Germ. verb werren, to disturb, to molest, to

do evil, and the A.S. werian, to weary, to molest.

The Goth. leitil-s (little) forms the comparative minn-iza and the superlative minn-ist-s. These forms occur in all the other dialects except Anglo-Saxon. The comparative minn-iza (adverbial min-s) is derived from the same root as the Lat. min-us, min-or (for min-ius, min-ior). This form is supplanted in Anglo-Saxon by lässa, and in Old Frisian too we have a comparative lessa by the side of minnira. The A. S. lässa is the same as the Gothic comparative lasivoza of lasivs (infirmus), and may perhaps be an assimilation of r to s, hence lässa for läsra; or the more primitive s of the comparative termination, as in the case of vyrsa (worse), may have resisted the transition into r. The same rules apply to the superlative: Goth. minnists, A. S. läst, O. Fris. minnist and lerest, where the s of the root submits to rhotacism.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The A. S. lässa (minor), läst (minimus), must be kept well distinct from latora (posterior), and latost (postremus).

#### 5. Comparison of the Adverbs.

Only the 'Adverbia qualitatis' are at all capable of taking the degrees of comparison; these degrees, however, are no independent adverbial forms, developed out of the adverbial positive, but they are mere modifications of the degrees of comparison of their corresponding adjectives. The formation of the adverbial degrees may take place in two different ways, either the accusative neuter is, as in the positive, used as an adverb, or a distinct form is developed. As to the superlative there is only the former mode put into practice; it never has a form of its own, and must always be considered as an accusative of the adjective. amples:—Goth. frumist (πρῶτον); O. H. Germ. érist (primum), meist (maxime), bezzëst (optime), gërnost (lubentissime); A.S. erest (primum) mest (maxime), geornost (lubentissime); latost (ultimum). O. N. best (optime); optast (saepissime), vidast (latissime).

The comparative of the adverb may either be expressed by the accus. neut. of the adjective, or it developes a form of its own. To the former belong the adverbial comparatives: Goth. managizó (plus), minnizó (minus), frumôzó (prius); O. H. Germ. méra

(plus), minnira (minus).

Adverbial comparatives of the latter class may be formed either in is or os, like the adjectives. In is we have the Goth. máis (magis) from máiza (major), O. H. Germ. mér, O. S. mér and mérr, A. S. má, O. Fris. már and má, O. N. meir; Goth. mins or minz (minus) from minniza (minor), O. H. Germ. min, O. S. (min?), A. S. läs, O. Fris. min, O. N. minnr or miðr; Goth. bats (melius) from batiza (melior), O. H. Germ. paz, O. S. bet, A. S. bet, O. Fris. bet, O. N. betr; Goth. vairs (pejus), O. H. Germ. wirs, O. S. wirs, A. S. wyrs (adj. wyrsa), O. N. verr.

In os:—Goth. raíhtós (rectius), svinþós (fortius); O. H. Germ. gërnőr (lubentius), leidór¹ (proh dolor, Germ. leider), oftór (saepius); O. S. diopór (profundus), suithór (fortius); A. S. smalor (tenuius), adj. smälra (tenuior); sparor (parcius), adj. spärra (parcior); O. N. breidar (latius), vídar (amplius). A list of the anomalous or defective comparisons of the adverbs may conclude our remarks on this subject.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This comparative with positive signification serves to express the interjection 'alas!'

		Gothic.	O. H. Germ.	0. \$.	Ang -Sax.	O. Fris.	Old Norse.
Bene.						:	
Po	٠.	reile	vile	rd	wel	करो	•र्खे
Co	mp.	bats	F=5	, set	bet (sel)	bet	betr (skárr)
Se	<b>p</b> .	batist	peş peşist	best	best	best	võl betr (skårr) best (skåst)
Male.							
Po	<b>6</b> .	whilsb:	upilo		<b>y</b> ide		illa
Co	mp.	raire	rin	••	gide wyrs	::	रवंग
Multu	m.						
		*miku	sém *mildu	••	sore mycu	۱	mičk
Co	mp.	máis	mêr	mêr	má	már, má	mair
Se	φ.	máist	oéro *mikku mér meist	٠	mest		meist
Parve.							
Po	s.	leitil, leitl	luzil, luzilo	1	·lytel	۱ ا	litt. litit
Co	mp.	mins	luzil, luzilo min minnist	min	lās	'	litt, litit min, siör minst, sist (=siös)
e-	-			l_,_,	محدا	ļ	minet, eta

#### MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

In the Middle and New Teutonic languages the ancient suffixes ir, ist, and or, ost are mixed up and usually represented by er, est, or simply r, st. The only criterion by which we can trace a comparative to the form in ir is the Umlaut. Wherever we have to deal with an adjective which has taken Umlaut in the comparative, we may be certain that this adjective took the suffix ir in the comparative. But this rule is necessarily very limited in its application, because there are adjectives which have Umlaut in the positive already, or they have a vowel in the root which cannot take Umlaut, such as e and i, and then it is impossible to tell whether the comparative belongs to the formation in ir or or.

#### FORMATIONS IN ir.

In Old English there prevails some confusion as to the application of the suffixes ir(er) and or, the latter being sometimes used where undoubtedly er should be expected, i. e. after Umlaut; e. g. strong, strengor for strenger; eldost for eldest. The terminations or and ost have altogether disappeared in Middle English, but the Umlaut with comparatives in ir sometimes continues, e. g. long, lenger; strong, strenger, strengest; old, elder, eldest; but also longer, stronger, older. New English has rejected the formations with the Umlaut, and thus obliterated all distinction

between the comparison in ir and that in or, the only example left being the comparative elder and superlative eldest of the adjective old, which however uses the modern forms older and

oldest as well, though in a slightly different sense.

Middle High German has, like Old English, occasionally retained the formations in o, but in most cases it was like i converted into e, and thus the regular terminations were er, est. But the Umlaut having in High German more than in any other language preserved its ancient position, we can tell with tolerable accuracy where we have to deal with a comparative in Such examples are herte, hard, herter; kalt, cold, kelter; krank, sick, krenker; schoene, fair, schoener; senfte, gentle, senfter; strang, severe, strenger; veste, fast, firm, vester. Some of these, herte, schoene, &c. have the Umlaut in the positive already, and then retain it of course in the comparative and superlative. New High German on the whole follows the same rule as its predecessor, the formation in i causing Umlaut wherever Umlaut is possible (a, o, u); e.g. schmal, narrow, schmäler, schmälest; arm, poor, armer, armest; warm, warmer, warmest; fromm, pious, frömmer, frömmest; gesund, healthy, gesünder, gesündest. Those adjectives which have the Umlaut in the positive already retain it throughout the degrees.

The Scandinavian languages also have in a few adjectives retained the Umlaut and therewith the distinctive feature of the formation in ir; e. g. Swed. låg, low, humble, lägre, lägst; lång, long, längre, längst; Dan. lang, längere, längst; Swed. stor, great, större, störst; Dan. stor, större, störst; Swed. ung, young, yngre, yngst; Dan. ung, yngre, yngst; Swed. tung, heavy, tyngre, tyngst; Dan. tung, tyngere, tyngest; Swed. små, small, little,

smärre, smärst.

Middle and New Dutch, which reject the Umlaut and adopt er and est for the formation of the degrees throughout, know no longer any distinction between the comparison in i and that in o. The only trace of Umlaut left in Dutch are the anomalous forms beter, best, of which hereafter.

#### FORMATIONS IN Or.

In Old English the fluctuations between er and or, est and ost make it difficult to assign any adjective to the formation in i or o, for we read faire, fairor and fairest, by the side of rayrost; holy, holyor; feblor, feebler; poueror, poorer, and, as we have already mentioned, even after an Umlaut eldost for eldest; but in Middle English er and est become more and more settled, and in

New English they must be considered the regular suffixes of the degrees of comparison which unite in them the ancient formations in i and o.

In Middle High German there are many adjectives which reject the Umlaut, and thus indicate the ancient formation in o; e. g. alt, old, alder, aldest; lang, long, langer, langest; zart, tender, gentle, dear, zarter, zartest; lam, lame, lamre. Local adjectives even retain the o in the superlative (not in the comparative), as vorderôst, foremost; oberôst, topmost; niderôst, lowest.

New High German forms the degrees in most cases by rejecting the Umlaut, and leaving the root of the adjective unaltered; nay, it has removed the Umlaut from words which used it in Middle High German, as for instance in sanft, soft, sanfter, sanftest; and in the literary language this removal of the ancient Umlaut continues to be attempted, as in frommer for frommer (fromm, pious); gesunder for gesunder (gesund, healthy), whilst the language of the people favours the Umlaut and introduces it in words where the literary language rejects it, where it was wanting even in Middle High German, e.g. zärter for zarter (zart, gentle), flächer for flacher (flach, flat). These facts undoubtedly prove the higher antiquity of the forms with the Umlaut, or, what is identical, of the formation in i. Comparisons without the Umlaut are very numerous; we give a few examples: blank, blanker, blankest; klar, clear, klarer, klarest; zart, gentle, zarter, zartest; matt, weak, matter, mattest; voll, full, voller, vollst; stolz, proud, stolzer, stolzest; bunt, variegated, bunter, buntest; blau, blew, blauer, blauest. To these belong all adjectives ending in sam, bar, haft, el, en, er, and adjectives ending in ig, if their positive has no Umlaut, and the adjectives indicating a locality, which however use the superlative only, as oberst, topmost; unterst, lowest; vorderst, foremost.

In the Scandinavian languages all adjectives, except those mentioned under ir, are formed by the suffix or, which in Swedish is rendered, as in Old Norse, by ar and ast, in Danish by the modern er and est. Umlaut is in these adjectives impossible. Examples: — Swed. varm, warm, varmare, varmast; Dan. varm, varmere, varmest; Swed. stark, strong, starkare, starkast; Dan. stärk, stärkere, stärkest; Swed. rik, rich, rikare, rikast; Dan. rig, rigere, rigest; Swed. mägtig, mägtigare, mägtigst<sup>1</sup>; Dan. mägtig, magtigere, mägtigst.

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  In adjectives ending in ig the inflexional vowel suffers syncope before st in the superlative.

ANOMATORIS	AND	DEFECTIVE	COMPARISONS.
CONTRACTOR	AND	1 / Par Par 7 1 1 V Pa	LAUMPARISUNS.

	M. H. Germ.	N. H. G.	O. Engl.	N. Engl.	Dutch.	Swedish.	Danish.
19.							
Pos. { Adj. Adv.	guot . rool	gut wohl	god wel	good well	goed	gôd (bra)   väl	god vel
Comp.	$\left\{\begin{array}{c} bezzer \\ (adv.baz) \end{array}\right\}$	beßer	{ better }	better	beter	bättre	bedre
Sup.	best	best	best	best	best	bä <b>st</b>	bedst
ms.							
Pos.	••		urel	evil (bad)		(elak, ônd)	(ond,slem)
Comp.	• •		wors, wers	worse		värre	paerre
Sup.	••		worst, werst	worst		värrst	vaerst
ltus.							
B- [ Adj.	michel	(viel)	muchel	1		mycken	megen
Pos. Adv.			muche	much	• • •	١٠	
Comp.	mërre	† mere	more	more	meer	mera	mere
Sup.	meist	† meist	moste	most	meest	mest	meest
vus.							
Pos.	lützel	(klein)	litel	little	۱	liten	liden
Comp.	minner	minder	less	less	minder	mindre	mindre
Sup.	minnest	mindest	leest	least	minst	minst	mindst.

Besides these there are various other defective comparisons in the different dialects, such as the Engl. many, Germ. viele, which adopt the comparative and superlative of M. H. Germ. michel, O. Engl. muchel, whilst Danish has preserved the true Old Norse comparison of many—Dan. mange, flere, fleest; few, Dan. faa, faerre, faerrest. The Swed. nära, near, närmare, närmast; Dan. naer, naermere, naermest, are derived from the ancient superlative närma. The Engl. next by the side of nearest, last by the side of latest, are contractions, the former of which stands for A. S. nehst, the regular superlative of neah, nigh, of which nearre, our near, is the comparative. The comparative further, farther, used for the positive far, was originally the comparative of for(th).

The comparatives in ther, A.S. per, Goth. par, as other, whither, hither, thither, nether, whether, Germ. ander, nieder, weder, &c., will find their explanation by a reference to the Old Teutonic forms.

The superlatives utmost, hindmost, inmost, &c., are no compounds of most (maxime), but a superlative termination est converted into ost, and combined with the preceding m, which is the remainder of an ancient superlative termination. (See Anglo-Saxon, p. 256.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See pp. 250, 255.

All modern Tentonic dialects allow of a comparison effected by the addition of the adverts more and most, instead of terminations. In English we use this mode of comparison with most adjectives that are not monosyllables, hence we say beautiful, more, most install. This form is used in German where two qualities are compared, e.g. mole blag als tapfer, more prudent than brave, product rather than brave. Participles never take the terminations in Swedish, Danish and Dutch, but always form their comparisons by more, most, more, meet; e.g. Swed. more distalt, Dan. more clash, more beloved; meet godgjörende, most charitable; Dutch meer doordrongen, meest doordrongen, more penetrated. &c.

### DECLENSIONS.

#### THE COGNATE LANGUAGES.

#### NUMBERS, CASES, GENDERS.

Roots and themes (stems) are not yet words, parts of a phrase or sentence. In the Aryan languages every real word, every part of a phrase, is either a verb or a noun. (Interjections are no words, but mere sounds; adverbs, particles, prepositions, &c., were originally nominal or verbal forms.) Themes of themselves are neither one nor the other; they may become such or such under the influence of a case-suffix of the noun, or a personal termination of the verb. Case-suffixes, therefore, and personal terminations in the Aryan languages are the agents chiefly at work in the formation of words, in contradistinction to the elements which constitute themes or stems. The suffixes employed in the formation of words are easily recognised as the primary elements of pronouns, which at an earlier period of Arvan life were still independent roots.

Since verbs and nouns are in such relation to each other as to constitute the defined forms of heretofore undefined elements of speech, the former cannot occur without the latter. A language either distinguishes the forms of nouns from those of verbs, or it possesses neither of the two. We cannot, therefore, speak of the priority of either: the noun and the verb started into

existence at one and the same time.

The inflexional elements of the noun belong to two distinct spheres—the cases and numbers. In the Aryan languages we distinguish three numbers, the Singular, Dual, and Plural; the dual, however, is rightly considered a mere modification of the plural; it is a number therefore which easily disappears again from a language. The Latin is altogether devoid of it, and the ancient Teutonic languages miss the dual form in the declensions of the noun; Gothic alone has a dual of the verb, all have the dual of certain pronouns. Our modern languages have lost the dual altogether.

The Aryan languages had originally eight cases, namely the Nominative, Accusative, Locative, Dative, Ablative, Genitive, and two Instrumentals, which however coalesced into one at a very early date. The vocative is no case, not even a word; it is the simple theme or stem used as an interjection. The eight cases together with the vocative are, even by the most ancient representatives of the Aryan tribe, distinguished in the singular only. The locative and dative, the ablative and genitive of the singular are closely related. The plural partly possesses case-suffixes which differ from those of the singular, partly it joins two cases into one, as the dative and ablative, to which the instrumental bears a close resemblance. The dual has but three cases: (1) nominative and accusative; (2) dative, ablative, and instrumental; (3) genitive and locative. At a very early period our Aryan languages began to drop one and another of the casesigns, and consequently cases which originally were distinct coalesced into one. Thus in Greek the ablative was lost in the genitive; the instrumental begins to disappear even in the most ancient form of the language; the dative and locative are joined A similar course is followed by the Latin language. As to our Teutonic languages, in their ancient constitution they are as perfect, or as mutilated, as either Greek or Latin in the declension of cases; but in their further development through the periods of the Middle and New Teutonic they were gradually stripped of most inflexional forms, so that now it is only German (and partly Dutch) which show anything like a declension of the substantive or adjective through the first four cases (as commonly arranged), while English and the Scandinavian dialects have preserved but one case, namely the genitive or possessive in 's; all other cases, the nominative, dative, and accusative, being identical with the theme or stem of the word.

The Aryan languages distinguish three genders, while other languages do not at all take them into account, or others again form more numerous distinctions than ours. A particular inflexional sign for the distinction of the genders does not exist in the Aryan languages, and it is perfectly evident that at an early stage the primitive Aryan language knew no discrimination of genders, which in the course of time was gradually developed and marked out by secondary inflexional forms. We mention a few only of the means which our languages apply for the expression of the different genders. (1) The themes which end in consonants or the vowels i and u do not pay any regard to gender,

while the themes in a mark out the feminine by the production of the thematic a into a, a process however which is not to be considered exclusively characteristic of the feminine. (Comp. the Greek κριτή-s, πολίτη-s.) (2) The gender is distinguished by casesuffixes which are adopted only in certain genders, e.g. Lat. masc. qui-e, neut. qui-d=qui-t. (3) The gender is marked out in the theme itself by the application of particular suffixes. Thus, for instance, the themes in ya (yá), e.g. Sansk. déri (goddess)= dér-ya, theme dér-ya-, while the masc. is not dér-ya-s, but the ancient dév-as; Sansk. dátri (datrix, she who gives) = dátr-yá, theme datr-ya from datar-ya, for the more ancient datar which was common to all genders; thus also the Gr. δότειρα=†δοτερ(ν)α. alone with which there does not exist a masc. δότεφο-s. primitive datarya-s, because in the masc. form the more ancient do-1710-, Sansk. da-tar- was preferred; Sansk. sradri (sweet) = sradr-va. Gr. hoeia (adjective of three terminations) = Sansk. sradar-va. by the side of the more ancient forms Sansk. sradu-s, Gr. ἡδύ-s, which were used for the feminine as well; thus also the Latin theme vic-tric- for the feminine only by the side of the masc. tic-tor. (4) Of a comparatively recent introduction is the mode of distinguishing the genders by a phonetic change in terminational forms which at first were identically the same; e.g. Sansk. pati-n (fem.) for pati-ms; Gr. iππότη-s (masc.), ἀρετή (fem.); Old Lat. abl. sing. masc. novô-d, fem. novâ-d, the primitive form of both mava-t; Gothic gen. plur. masc. and neut.  $-\hat{e}$ , fem. in several themes -6, both -é and -6 standing for an original -am.

#### THE TERMINATIONS OF NOMINAL THEMES.

The termination of a nominal theme has a decisive influence on the declension, because the theme is the changeable element of the noun, while the case-terminations are for all nouns and declensions ever the same. We might therefore speak of different themes rather than of different declensions. The themes deserve special arrangement and examination, for it is with them that the case-suffixes enter into an alliance, and by them that they, according to their nature, are differently affected and modified. Themes are either consonantal or vocalic, that is, ending in a consonant or a vowel. The former easily disappear from languages because they have a tendency to follow the analogy of the latter. The consonantal themes, moreover, may modify their final consonant and lengthen or shorten their final syllable before certain case-suffixes, or they remain the same throughout. They

therefore are divided into mutable and immutable themes. The vowels nearest related to the consonants are u and i, for they may easily go over into the semi-vowels or consonants v and j respectively. Next then to the consonantal we place the themes ending in a diphthong, as du or dv, and those in u and i (long or short). The themes in a (the most frequent in our languages) are peculiar in this respect, that a never can pass into a consonant (that is, follow the analogy of a consonantal theme), a fact which imparts to them certain characteristic features distinct from anything we find with the rest.

### I. CONSONANTAL THEMES.

(1) Immutable themes. The final consonant of the root is also the termination of the theme; e. g. Sansk. vdck, speech, Gr.  $d\pi$ -, Lat.  $v\delta c$ -, Goth. man-, homo. Some of these follow the analogy of vocalic themes.

(2) Themes in -as, the thematic suffix of which is changed by the phonetic influence of the case-suffix added to it, as Lat.

cinis-, ciner-, arbos-, arbor-, genos-, gener-, vetus-, veter-.

(3) Themes in -n. These are subject to considerable modifications, as Gr. ποιμέν-, shepherd, μέλαν-, black; Lat. homen-, man, sermôn-, speech; Goth. hanan-, cock; fem. tuggon-, tongue; managein- = managjan-, many, multitude; neut. Lat. nômen-, Goth. naman-, name.

- (4) Themes in -ant-, -ans-, occurring in active participles and comparatives. These are subject to great changes; they may drop the n and exchange t and s, using the latter before vowels, the former before consonants; as in the part. active, pres. and fut., e. g. Sansk. bharant-, Gr.  $\phi \epsilon \rho o \nu \tau$ -, Lat. ferent-, bearing, Goth. fijand- (hating, enemy, fiend); the part. pret. active, e. g. Sansk. vidrant- (for primitive vidvid-vant-), Gr.  $\epsilon i \delta \delta \tau$  (for  $\epsilon \epsilon i \delta \epsilon \delta \tau$ -).
- (5) Themes in -r. Sansk. dátar-, giver; bhrátar-, brother; mátar-, mother; Gr. δοτήρ-, giver; πατέρ-, father; μητέρ-, mother; Lat. datór-, pater-, máter-; Goth. bróthar-, brother; daúhtar-, daughter.

## 2. Vocalic Themes.

- (6) Themes ending in a diphthong; e.g. Sansk. nau-, ship; Gr. rav-.
- (7) Themes in  $\vec{u}$  and  $\hat{u}$ : they are no primitive forms, as little as the long vowels upon which they are based; Sansk.  $bhr\vec{u}$ , brow, for the primitive bhru-, Gr.  $\partial \phi \rho \hat{v}$ -; Lat.  $s\vec{u}$ -, sow, pig; before vowels  $s\vec{u}$ .

(8) Themes in -u. Sansk. súnu-, son, fem. hanu-, cheek; Gr. γένν-, chin, γλυκύ-, sweet; Lat. fructu-, fruit; Goth. sunu-, son, fem. handu-, hand: neut. Sansk. madhu-, honey, Gr. μεδυ-; Lat. pecu-, cattle; Goth. faihu-, possession, wealth (comp. Germ. vieh. Engl. fee).

(9) Themes in -i. Sansk. avi- (masc. and fem.), sheep; Gr. φυσι-, nature; Lat. ovi-, sheep; Goth. mahti-, might, power: masc. Sansk. pati-, lord; Gr. πόσι-, husband; Lat. hosti-, enemy; Goth. gasti-, guest: neut. Sansk. vāri-, water; Lat.

mari-, sea.

(10) Themes in a. Masc. primitive akva-, horse; Gr. lππυ-, Lat. equo-; Goth. vulfa-, wolf: neut. Sansk. yuga-, yoke; Gr. ζυγό-, Lat. jugo-, Goth. juka-: fem. (commonly with lengthened

a), Gr. χώρα-, χώρα-, Lat. equa-, Goth. giba-, gift.

The themes in ya have in several languages certain peculiarities which are the result of their respective phonetic laws: as in Sanskrit where the feminines in -ya contract this suffix into i, e.g. bharanti- (φέρουσα). Compare Gothic masc. harja, army (Germ. heer); hairdja, shepherd (Germ. hirte); neut. kunja, kin, kind, genus; fem. bandja, band, bandage.

#### FORMATION OF THE CASES.

#### NOMINATIVE SINGULAR.

Masculine and feminine nouns add the case-sign s to the termination of the theme; neuter nouns supply the nominative by the accusative. The s of the nominative is undoubtedly the remainder of the pronominal root sa, which is used in a demonstrative sense in Sanskrit and Gothic, and appears also in the Greek article  $\delta = so = sa$ . (See Demonstrative Pronouns.) The neuter of sa is in Sanskrit tat, Goth. pa-ta. Gr. 70. The t in ta-t and tha-ta is the remainder of the root ta which is used to indicate the neuter gender in the pronominal declension, as Sansk. masc. and fem. ki-s, neut. ki-t, Lat. qui-s, qui-t (qui-d). Here we find s and t representing the genders in the same manner as in the independent pronouns sa and ta, and we therefore conclude that in the pronominal as well as nominal declension we have to deal with the same pronouns, applied as case-suffixes. This fact again is a proof that the inflexional terminations in the Aryan languages were originally nothing but independent roots added to the simple noun—that our declensions were simply 'post-positions.'

The addition of the nominative sign s to the theme must of course take place in accordance with the phonetic laws adopted in each of the Aryan languages. What changes must hereby necessarily occur will best be seen from a selection of examples which we give, numbered according to the number of the theme to which they belong, and which is to be found by reference to the preceding paragraph.

# Examples:-

Sanskrit. (1) vák for vách-s (no ch final); bharan, bharās. (5) dátá, bhrátá, mátá, with loss of -r-s and lengthening of the final vowel; (6) nau-s, (7) bhru-s, (8) sunú-s, hánu-s, (9) ávi-s, páti-s. (10) vrkí-s for †vrkyá-s, she-wolf; sihí-s, lioness, for

sihyá-s; gna- and gná-s, woman, goddess.

Greek. The loss of the case-suffix s causes the lengthening of the preceding vowel. Examples:—(1)  $\delta \pi$ -s ( $\sigma \psi$ ), (3) ποιμήν from  $^{\dagger} \pi$ οιμεν-s,  $\tau$ έκτων from  $^{\dagger} \tau$ εκτον-s, but μέλας for  $^{\dagger} \mu$ ελαν-s; (4)  $\phi$ έρων from  $^{\dagger} \phi$ εροντ-s, but  $\tau$ ιθείς, ἱστάς, δεικνός for  $^{\dagger} \tau$ ιθεντ-s,  $^{\dagger}$ ἱσταντ-s,  $^{\dagger}$ δεικνυντ-s; εἰδώς from  $^{\dagger} F$ ειδFοτ-s: (5) δοτήρ from δοτηρ-s;  $\pi$ ατήρ, μήτηρ for  $^{\dagger} \pi$ ατερ-s,  $^{\dagger} \mu$ ητερ-s: (6) να $\hat{v}$ -s, (7) δφρύ-s, (8) γένν-s, (9) φύσι-s, (10) Iππο-s.

Latin. (1) rôc-s, vox; pés for ped-s; mílés (later on mílés) for mílet-s; (2) arbôs for arbos-s, cinis- for cinis-s; (3) homó for homen-s, but tubicen for tubicen-s; (4) feren(t)-s; (5) patér, mátér, datôr, as in Greek (the short vowel of the second syllable is of later origin); (6) bô-s (originally bou-s, like Gr. βοῖ-s); (7) sú-s, (8) fructu-s, (9) ovi-s; but mor-s for mort-s for morti-s, root mar, suffix ti; ars for art-s, for arti-s; ácer and ácri-s, vigil and vigili-s: (10) equo-s, but puer for puero-s, vir for viro-s.

Gothic. Nos. 3 and 5 lengthen the final vowel if the nom. case-suffix is dropped: hana for thana from thanan-s; fem. tuggo from tuggan-s; managei for tmanagian-s; (4) fijand-s; (5) brothar, dauhtar, for brothar from brothar-s, &c.; (8) sunu-s, handu-s; (9) maht-s, gast-s for mahti-s, gasti-s, (10) vulf-s for tvulfa-s, giba for tgiba, harji-s for harja-s, hairdei-s for hairdja-s;

fem. bandi for bandja.

### NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

In addition to the termination s (sa) of the nominative singular, the nominative plural takes the plural sign s, which again appears to be the abbreviation of sa, so that the original termination of the nom. plur. may have been -sasa, thence sas, which, dropping the first s for the sake of euphony, became as.

# Examples:-

**Banskrit.** (1) vách-as, (4) bharant-as, (5) dátár-as, mátar-as, (6) náv-as, (8) sánav-as.

Greek. The primitive suffix is represented by  $-\epsilon s$ ; the themes in a have a formation analogous to that of the pronouns. Examples:—(1)  $\delta \pi - \epsilon s$ , (2)  $\delta v \sigma \mu \epsilon v \epsilon \hat{i} s = ^{\dagger} - \mu \epsilon v \dot{\epsilon} - \epsilon s = ^{\dagger} - \mu \epsilon v \dot{\epsilon} - \epsilon s$ , (3)  $\tau \dot{\epsilon} \kappa - \tau o v - \epsilon s$ , (4)  $\phi \dot{\epsilon} \rho o v - \epsilon s$ , (5)  $\delta o \tau \hat{\eta} \rho - \epsilon s$ ,  $\pi \alpha \tau \dot{\epsilon} \rho - \epsilon s$ ,  $\mu \eta \tau \dot{\epsilon} \rho - \epsilon s$ , (6)  $\nu \dot{\alpha} f - \epsilon s$ ,  $\nu \dot{\eta} f - \epsilon s$ , (7)  $\delta \phi \rho \dot{\nu} - \epsilon s$ , (8)  $\nu \dot{\epsilon} \kappa v - \epsilon s$ ,  $\nu \lambda v \kappa \dot{\epsilon} \hat{i} s = \gamma \lambda v \kappa \dot{\epsilon} f - \epsilon s$ . (10)  $\tau \pi \sigma i$  and  $\tau \sigma i$  are formed on the same principle as of and al, more ancient  $\tau \sigma i$  and  $\tau \sigma i$ , perhaps from  $t \sigma v - a s$ , fem.  $t \sigma v - a s$ . The loss of the final s may partly have been caused from an attempt to dissimilate the nominative  $-\sigma i s$ ,  $-\alpha i s$  from the locative forms  $-\sigma i s$ ,  $-\alpha i s$  for  $-\sigma i \sigma i$ ,  $-\alpha i \sigma i$ . (See the Declension of the Pronouns.)

Latin. All the consonantal themes have adopted the form of the themes in i, hence  $voc-\acute{es}$ ,  $bov-\acute{es}$ ,  $su-\acute{es}$  from voceis, boveis, sueis, in the same manner as  $ov\acute{es}$  from oveis (theme in i); (8) fructus, probably from †fructous, fructov-os, fructev-es, as  $\pi\acute{\eta}\chi\epsilon\iota$ s from † $\pi\acute{\eta}\chi\epsilon f-\epsilon s$ ; or it may be derived from †fructu-es (comp.  $l\chi\theta\acute{v}-\epsilon s$ ), so that the primitive form of both the Greek and Latin would be -u-as. (10) equi, more ancient equei, equeis, equoe, †equoi, †equois. The s dropped as in Greek, a rather frequent occurrence in Latin. (Compare pote and potis, mage and magis, amare and amaris; hi, hei for heis; magistri, magistrei for magistreis.)

Gothic. All vocal themes put -s directly to the lengthened final vowel. (1) man-s from †man-as), (3) hanan-s from †hanan-as, (4) fijand-s (= †fijand-as), (5) brôthrju-s (a theme in r follows the analogy of the themes in u, under 8); (8) sunj-us from †suniv-s, †suniv-as, †sunav-as; (9) mahtei-s, gastei-s, from †mahtej-s, mahtag-as; (10) vulfo-s, primitive varka-s(as); fem. gibô-s, primitive, gibâ-s(as).

### Nominative Dual.

The dual forms of the noun being wanting in the Teutonic languages, we omit examining them.

## ACCUSATIVE SINGULAR.

The case-sign with a consonantal theme is -am, with a vocalic theme -m, very probably the abbreviation of -am. The neuter themes in a adopt this form for the nominative too, all other neuters have in the accus. and nom. no suffix whatever. This -am, -m seems to be related to the -m which is frequently used

in the formation of themes, and it must be derived from a pronominal base, the principal part of which is m: this we might find in the Sansk. ama-(hic), amu-s, ami-s (ille), perhaps from a pronominal root am.

# Examples:-

Sanskrit. (1) vách-am, (4) bharant-am, (5) bhrátar-am, málar-am, datar-am; (6) náv-am, (7) bhruv-am, (8) súnu-m, súnv-am;

(9) avi-m, (10) juga-m.

Greek. According to the phonetic laws, Greek adopts  $\pi(r)$  for m; with a consonantal theme  $\nu$  is dropped and simple a used in the accusative: (1)  $\delta \pi - a$ , (3)  $\pi \circ \iota \iota \iota \ell \circ \iota$ , (4)  $\varphi \cdot \ell \circ \iota \circ \iota$ , (5)  $\pi \circ \iota \iota \ell \circ \iota$ ,  $(7) \nu \circ \iota \circ \iota$ , Hom.  $\nu \circ \iota \circ \iota$ , prim.  $n \circ \iota \circ \iota$  (8)  $\gamma \land \iota \circ \iota$ , (9)  $\pi \circ \circ \iota$ ,  $\varphi \circ \circ \iota$ ,  $(10) \iota \circ \iota$ , (

Latin. The consonantal themes follow the analogy of themes in i; hence they have, instead of the regular -om or -um which they should use for the primitive -am, the termination -em = †im, with the weakened e for i, adopted also by the themes in i:

(1) voc-em; (2) ciner-em, neut. genus; (3) homin-em, neut. nomen;

(4) ferent-em, (5) patr-em, matr-em; (6) bov-em, (7) su-em, (8) fructu-m, neut. cornu; (9) navi-m, nave-m, neut. mare for †mari;

(10) equo-m, neut. jugu-m.

Gothic. The terminational m, which in Gothic, as in Greek, was replaced by n (as we still see in the declension of the pronoun), was dropped, together with the short vowel preceding it; and consequently in themes in i and a the accus. sing. became identical with the nominative: (3)  $hanan = {}^{\dagger}hanan - an$ , neut. namo = nam - on = nam - an; (4) fijand(-an), (5) brothar(-an), dauhtar(-an); (8) sunu(-n), fem. handu(-n), neut. fufhu; (9) maht(-in), gast(-in); (10) vulf(-a-n), neut. juk(-a-n), fem. giba from  ${}^{\dagger}giba$ -n. Themes in ja: hari = harja-n, neut. kuni = kunja-n, fem. bandja = bandja-n.

### ACCUSATIVE PLURAL.

Masculine and feminine nouns add the plural sign s to the termination of the accusative singular, so that the primitive casesign of the accus. plur. may have been -ams, which became -ans (in most languages the n is preferred to the m before s), and dropping the a, -ns. This ns in Sanskrit was again dissected into -n and -s, the former being used with the masculine, and the latter with the feminine vocalic themes which end in a long vowel. But the original -ms is preserved with masculine vocalic themes before t and ch, and all the consonantal themes have -as.

Neuters end in *i* (weakened a). The Greek and Latin languages reject the n altogether, and thus we have the terminations  $\bar{\alpha}s$ , ds,  $\delta s$ , while Gothic alone preserves the primitive form of the casesign, using always -ns in the accus. plur. with vocalic themes, which with consonantal themes is replaced by -as. The neuter ends throughout in a which is also used in the nom. plur.

## Examples :-

Sanskrit. (1) vach-as, (3) neut. naman-i, (4) bharat-as, neut. bharant-i; (5) dátf-n (datf-s), neut. dátf-n-i, bhrátf-n, mátf-s; (6) nav-as, (7) bhruv-as, (8) súnú-n, súnv-as, fem. hanú-s; (9) patí-n, fem. aví-s; (10) aśvá-n, fem. aśva-s, neut. yuga-ni.

Greek. (1) ὅπ-αs = †Fοπ- $\bar{\alpha}$ s = †Fοπ-ανs, (3) τέκτον-αs, neut. τάλαν-α; (4) φέροντ-αs, neut. φέροντ-α; (5) πατέρ-αs, (6) ν $\bar{\eta}$ F-αs, να $\bar{v}$ s. (7) δφρύ-αs, δφρ $\bar{v}$ -s; (8) †γλυκέF-αs, γλυκε $\bar{i}$ s;  $l\chi\theta\dot{v}$ -αs,  $l\chi\theta\ddot{v}$ s; γευ $\bar{v}$ -αs, γεν $\bar{v}$ -s. (9) † $\pi$ ολεg-αs, πολε $\bar{i}$ s; (10)  $l\pi$ πους = † $l\pi$ πο-νς, neut. δνγ-d.

**Latin.** (2) gener-a (= $^{\dagger}ganas$ -d), (3) nómin-a, (4) ferenti-a (as theme in i); (8) fructú-s= $^{\dagger}fructu$ -ns, neut. cornu-a; (9) oveis, ovés (comp. Gr.  $\pio\lambda\epsilon$ îs and  $\pio\lambda$ īs), from  $^{\dagger}ovi$ -ns, neut. mari-a (comp.  $^{\dagger}i\delta\rho\iota$ -a). (10) equó-s= $^{\dagger}equo$ -ns, fem. equá-s= $^{\dagger}equa$ -ns.

(comp. τδρι-a). (10) equő-s=†equo-ns, fem. equő-s=†equa-ns.

Gothic. (1) man·s (=†man-as), (3) hanan-s (=†hanan-as), neut. namn-a (prim. náman-á); in neuter themes the termination -an- is changed into -ôn-, if the theme is bisyllabic, or -an-succeeds two consonants, e.g. hairtón-a, theme hairtan-; (4) fijand-s (=fijand-as). (2) bróthru-ns follows the analogy of themes in u. (8) sunu-ns, handu-ns; (9) mahti-ns, gastin-s; (10) vulfan-s, neut. juka (=†juká), fem. gibő-s.

## ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

This case is formed by the termination -at, or its abbreviated form -t, which is a frequently occurring element in the formation of themes, and may be identical with the pronominal demonstrative root ta, in an inverted form at. This case being lost in the Teutonic languages we abstain from examining it any further.

## GENITIVE SINGULAR.

The case-suffix of the genitive singular is -as, -s, which is added to the theme in the same manner as -at, -t, in the ablative, both suffixes being nearly related with regard to form as well as function. The masc and neut themes in a do not take -s but -sya, also of pronominal origin, probably =sa+ya. (Compare the demonstratives sa- and ta-, sya and tya.)

Examples:—

Sanskrit. (1) vach-as, (2), manas-as, (3) namn-as, (4) bharelas, (5) dâtu-s, bhrâtu-s, mâtu-s (ved. pitr-as, the more ancient form) from datr-s, matr-s = datr-as, matr-as, prim. datar-as, mátar-as. (6) náv-as, (7) bhrur-as, (8) súnó-s; fem. hauó-s or hanv-as, neut. madhu-n-as, madv-as, madh-os. (9) patê-s, also paty-us = paty-as: fem.  $av\hat{e}-s = avy-as$ , neut. vari-n-as; neut. yuga-sya.

Greek. Case-suffix os = prim. as; sometimes lengthened in The themes in a mase and neut. have  $\dagger -\sigma yo = \text{prim.} -sya;$ the fem. in a have the common case-suffix prim. -as, the a of which is absorbed by the final vowel of the theme. Examples: -(1)  $fo\pi$ -os, (3)  $\tau \in \kappa \tau \circ \nu$ -os, (4)  $\phi \in \rho \circ \nu \tau$ -os,  $\epsilon \wr \delta \circ \tau$ -os; (5)  $\pi \circ \tau \rho$ -os, μητρ-ός, for πατέρ-ος, μητέρ-ος, which also occur; (6) vaf-ός, vηός. (7) συ-ός, (8) γένυ-ος, perhaps for γεν-υF-ος; (9) Ion. πόλι-ος, πόλε-ωs. (10)  $^{\dagger}$ ίππο-σyο, ίππο-ιο, ίππο ο, ίππου; neut. ζυγο $\hat{ω}$ , ζυγοῦ; fem. χώορα-ς, τιμή-ς; masc. πολίτου, from πολιτ-20 (@

Hom.)= $^{\dagger}\pi \circ \lambda i \tau - a y \circ = ^{\dagger}\pi \circ \lambda i \tau - a - \sigma y \circ$ .

Latin. Suffix -os as in Greek, later -us, -is. Examples:—(1) vôc-os (as preserved in senatu-os, domu-os, &c.; perhaps for -uv-os, -ov-os, comp. Gr. γλυκέf-os), hence vôc-us (as preserved in vener-us, honor-us, part-us), hence voc-is. It is the same with all other consonantal themes. (2)  $\dagger$  genes-os, gener-is; (3) homin-is = †homen-os, nomin-is=†nomen-os; (4) ferent-is=†ferent-os, (5) patr $is = {}^{\dagger}patr-os$ , (6)  $bov-is = {}^{\dagger}bov-os$ , (7) su-is = su-os; (8) fruct u-s = su-os†fructu-os=fructov-os (comp. γλυκε f-os), like suus from sovos, or fructus from fructu-is (comp. senatu-is). Sometimes after the analogy of themes in a: senati, sumpti, quasti; (9) ovi-s, probably  $= {}^{\dagger}ovi-s = oveis$ ,  ${}^{\dagger}ove-is$ ,  ${}^{\dagger}ovi-is$ ; by the shortening of -is the consonantal are mixed up with the themes in i. (10) Masc. neut. equei, equi; jugei, jugi, probably tequeis = equois the more ancient form. (As we have already observed, the loss of the final s is of rather frequent occurrence in the Latin language.) This †equeis, †equois, in its primitive shape might be †akvay-as. Feminine, familia-s, terra-s, via-s, deiva-s=χωρα-s, Goth. gibô-s; or, Dianaes, Octaviaes, dimidiaes, suaes; -aes = -ais = prim. -dyas, as masc. -ois for ayas, in both genders an extension of the termination -as having taken place. To this -ais will also lead forms like fameliai, vitai, Romai, and the common -a = -ae which replaced the more ancient -ai. The themes in ya masc. and neut. in the more ancient form contract -ii into -i, as fili, consili.

Gothic. Suffix -s for the primitive -as; the themes in i and u lengthen their final vowel and take -as; the masc. and neut. themes in a shorten much their termination: (1) man-s (=<sup>†</sup> manas), (3) hanin-s, neut. namin-s = !hanin-is, †namin-is, primitive naman-as. (4) fijandis (like 10), (5) brôthr-s (= prim. bhrátar-as), dauhtr-s. (8) sunau-s, handau-s, faihau-s; this -au-s points to a more ancient †sunav-is, prim. sunav-as, from which Goth. †sunav-s, sunau-s. (9) gastis (masc. like 10), fem. mahtai-s, the -ai-s pointing to a more ancient mahtay-is, prim. mahtay-as. (10) rulfi-s, dagi-s, like Old Saxon daga-s from a primitive -asya, with the loss of the final ya; fem. gibô-s.

### GENITIVE PLURAL.

The genitive plural ends in -am and -sam, the latter suffix being almost exclusively used in the pronominal declension. It appears that -am has its origin in -sam, as the nom, plur. -as in -sas. Perhaps this -sam is a fuller or lengthened form of the original genitive suffix which seems to have lost the sign of the plural. This sign being supplied and the lengthened form reduced, we shall get -t sams as the primitive form. With this we may compare the dat. dual -bhyam from -bhyams, by the side of the dat. plur. -bhyas from -bhyams. In the same manner as we find the form bhy-am by the side of the case-suffix -bhi, so we have together with the suffix -s, -as, the form -s-am. With this -sam must originally have been joined the plural sign -s, hence -sam-s, as we have already stated.

Sanskrit. The suffix -dm is joined to the shortest form of mutable themes; vocalic themes increase themselves by adopting n, before which they lengthen the vowel of the theme; the ar of themes in ar is weakened into r, and this r treated as a vowel. Examples:—(1) vāch-ām, (2) manas-ām, (3) nāmn-ām, (4) bharat-ām, (5) dātī-n-ām, bhātī-n-ām; ved. nar-ām (nar-, man), svasr-ām (svasar-, sister); (6) nāv-ām, (7) bhruv-ām, (8) sūnū-n-ām, (9) avī-n-ām, (10) ašvā-n-ām, neut. yugā-n-ām.

Greek. The case-suffix is  $-\omega \nu = -am$ . (1)  $Fo\pi - \hat{\omega}\nu$ , (2)  $\mu \epsilon \nu - \hat{\omega}\nu$  =  $^{\dagger}\mu \epsilon \nu \epsilon \sigma - \omega \nu$ ; (3)  $\tau \epsilon \kappa \tau \delta \nu - \omega \nu$ , (4)  $\phi \epsilon \rho \delta \nu \tau - \omega \nu$ ,  $\epsilon l \delta \delta \tau - \omega \nu$ ; (5)  $\delta \sigma \tau \delta \rho - \omega \nu$ ,  $\mu \eta \tau \epsilon \rho - \omega \nu$ ; (6)  $\nu a \bar{\ell} - \hat{\omega}\nu$ ,  $\beta \sigma \ell - \hat{\omega}\nu$ ; (7)  $\sigma \nu - \hat{\omega}\nu$ , (8)  $\gamma \epsilon \nu \nu \ell - \omega \nu$ , (9) Ion.  $\pi \delta \lambda \ell - \omega \nu = ^{\dagger}\pi \sigma \lambda \epsilon \gamma - \omega \nu$ . (10)  $\lambda \ell \kappa - \omega \nu$ , fem.  $\chi \omega \rho \hat{\omega} \nu = ^{\dagger}\chi \omega \rho \alpha - (\sigma) - \omega \nu$ ;  $-\sigma \omega \nu = \text{prim. } -s \ell m$ .

Latin. Suffix -om, -um=prim. -ám; with themes in a it is -rom, -rum, from -sóm=prim. -sám. Examples:—(1) vôc-um=

† vôc-ôm; gener-um = genes-ôm; (3) nómin-um, (4) parent-um, sapient-um, or after the analogy of the themes in i, sapienti-um; (5) datôr-um, patr-um; (6) bo-um=†bov-um; (8) fructu-um, perhaps from † fructov-ôm; (9) ovi-um, (10) equum, equô-rum; fem. equa-rum (comp. Gr. χωρά-σων, r=s).

Gothic. The primitive suffix am was in Gothic reduced to  $\ell$ . The feminines of 3 and 10 change the primitive a of am into  $\ell$ . Examples: — (3) hanan- $\ell$  auhsn- $\ell$  (theme auhsan-, ox), neut. hairtan- $\ell$ , namn- $\ell$ , fem. tuggón- $\ell$ ; (4) fijand- $\ell$  (like 10); (5) bróthr- $\ell$ , dauhtr- $\ell$ ; (8) sunic- $\ell$ , fem. handir- $\ell$  (-iv- $\ell$ = prim. -av-am); (9) gast- $\ell$ , fem. anst- $\ell$  (like 10). (10) Masc. vulf $\ell$ , neut. juk $\ell$ , prim. vulfam, jugam; fem. gib- $\ell$ .

### LOCATIVE SINGULAR.

With nominal themes i is the case termination, but in the pronominal declension the locative takes the suffix in, probably the weakened form of an which may be derived from the pronominal demonstrative base ana- (to which belongs the preposition in, Lat. in, Gr.  $\ell v$ , Goth. ana). The locative is preserved as an independent case in Sanskrit and several other Aryan languages, but in the Teutonic as well as Latin, Greek and Celtic tongues, it has become identical with the dative, to which it originally bore a close relationship.

Sanskrit. The suffix i is in mutable themes joined to the shortest thematic form. Vocalic feminines in i, i, i, i, have -am as case-suffix, which is joined to a (10) by means of the spirant y. The themes in u have lost the case-suffix and terminate in -au, which stands for a more ancient -av-i; themes in i follow this analogy; neuters in i and u extend the theme by n. Examples:

—(1) vách-i, (2) manas-i, (3) náman-i and námn-i; (4) bharat-i, (5) dátar-i, mátar-i; (6) náv-i, (7) bhruv-i and bhruv-am; (8) súnáu, hanáu, ved. súnav-i, hanv-i, neut. madhu-n-i; (9) aváu, fem. avy-am; (10) masc. aśvé = †aśva-i, neut. jugé, fem. aśva-y-âm.

Greek. The locative has the functions of the dative; the masc. and neut. themes in a (10) have both cases, locative and dative, the former however is not used as a regular case of the noun, but as an adverb. Examples:—(1)  $\delta \pi - i$ , (2)  $\mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \iota = ^{\dagger} \mu \acute{\epsilon} \nu \epsilon \sigma - \iota$ ; (3)  $\tau \acute{\epsilon} \kappa \tau o \nu - \iota$ , (4)  $\phi \acute{\epsilon} \rho o \nu \tau - \iota$ ,  $\epsilon i \delta \acute{o} \tau - \iota$ ; (5)  $\delta o \tau \mathring{\eta} \rho - \iota$ ,  $\mu \eta \tau \rho - \acute{\iota}$ ; (6)  $\nu \eta F - \acute{\iota}$ , (7)  $\sigma \upsilon \cdot \acute{\iota}$ , (8)  $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \epsilon \acute{\iota} = ^{\dagger} \gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \epsilon F - \iota$ ; (9)  $\pi \acute{o} \lambda \epsilon \iota = ^{\dagger} \pi o \lambda \epsilon \nu - \iota$ ; (10)  $o \check{\iota} \kappa o - \iota$ ,  $\pi o \mathring{\iota}$ ,  $o \check{\iota}$ , fem.  $\chi a \mu a - \acute{\iota}$  (humi, theme  $\chi a \mu a - \iota$ ).

Latin. Locatives proper are the following forms of the themes in a: humi, domi, belli, Corinthi; i=ei=oi (comp. oikoi); fem.  $Romae={}^{\dagger}Romai$  (comp.  $\chi a\mu ai$ ); (ruri, or rure, is a common ablative, no locative.) As to the rest the locative has the functions of the dative.

Gothic. The locative has the functions of the dative; only the themes in a have the form of the dative proper; the case-

suffix i is dropped throughout; themes in u and i (feminine) lengthen the final vowel. Examples:—(1) mann(-i), (3) hanin-(-i), (4) fijand(-i) (5) brothr-(i), daúhtr(-i); (8) sunau=†sunav(i-), fem. handau=†handav(-i). (9) fem. mahtai=mahtaj(-i); masc. gasta (dative like 10). (10) Masc. and neut. form a dative; the fem. gibai may be taken as the dative or the locative.

# DATIVE SINGULAR. (See LOCATIVE.)

Sanskrit. The dative suffix is  $-\hat{e}$  for -ai, of which the former may be the weakened form; ai is perhaps the lengthened form of the locative i. Examples:—(1)  $v\hat{a}ch-\hat{e}$ , (2)  $manas-\hat{e}$ , (4)  $bha-rat-\hat{e}$ ,  $d\hat{a}tr-\hat{e}$ ,  $m\hat{a}tr-\hat{e}$ , (6)  $n\hat{a}v-\hat{e}$ , (7)  $bhruv-\hat{e}$ , (8)  $s\hat{u}nav-\hat{e}$ , (9)  $patay-\hat{e}$ , (10)  $a\hat{s}vaya$ ,  $d-y-a=^{\dagger}d-y-ai$ .

**Greek.** The true dative with the themes in a (10), as  $l\pi\pi\phi = l\pi\pi\omega$ , prim. akvai = akva-ai;  $\chi\omega\rho a$ ,  $\tau\iota\mu\hat{\eta}$ , a,  $\eta = di = d-ai$ .

Latin. As in Greek the true dative with the themes in a only (10), as equô = equô; thus populoi, romanoi, quoi; fem. equae = equâi.

Gothic. The same as with Greek and Latin. Themes in a (10): vulfa = vulfa = vulfa; fem. gibai = gibai.

### LOCATIVE PLURAL.

The suffix of this case is prim. -sva (comp. the pronominal root sva, relative and reflective), Sansk. -su, Gr.  $\sigma\sigma\iota = \sigma f\iota$  (used for the dative). In the Teutonic languages this case is lost.

#### 1st Instrumental Singular.

The instrumental singular is rendered by two distinct suffixes, where it has been conjectured that originally there must have been two distinct instrumentals. The case-suffix of the first instrumental is a (a demonstrative base frequently occurring in the formation of themes or stems); it is exclusively used in Sanskrit, while in Greek and Gothic we find it in adverbial forms only, or by the side of the second instrumental suffix in certain nominal themes.

### Examples:-

Sanskrit. (1) våch-d, (2) manas-d, (3) námn-á, (4) bharat-d, (5) bhrátr-d, dátr-á; (6) náv-á, (7) bhruv-d, (8) súnu-n-á, (9) pati-n-á, (10) aśvéná, yugéna.

Greek. Probably the adverbs in η and a, as πάντη, Dor. παντ-â, τάχ-a, άμ-a, perhaps l-ν-a.

Gothic (see below).

Old High German in feminine themes in a, as 'mit ercal éwa', certa lege; zwifalda léra, duplici doctrina.

### 2nd Instrumental Singular.

Case-suffix bhi, of doubtful origin, but frequently occurring in the formation of cases; with the plural sign s (-bhi-s) it forms the plural instrumental; it is used moreover to discharge the functions of the dative and ablative (tu-bhi-am, tibi; ma-bhi-am, mihi); in the dative and abl. plur. it appears again in the form -bhi-am-s. This suffix -bhi forms the instrumental singular in the Teutonic and other languages, by the side of the suffix -b (see 1st Instr.) used with feminine themes in a.

Greek very scarce: Hom. suffix  $\phi_i = \delta h i$ ; it is not limited to the instrumental, but may express locative and ablative relations as well. Examples:—Hom. ἡφι βίηφι; κρατερῆφι βίηφι; στήθεσ-

φιν, Ίλιό-φιν, δεξιό-φιν, &c.

Gothic has this case but in few examples; in Old High German, on the contrary, we meet it as a regularly occurring formation, where, with themes in a, it ends in -u, -u (later o) This -u, -u, is derived from -am, -ami, or rather -dmi, e.g. wolfu, wortu, plintu; wolfu from wolfam, wolfa-mi. With pronouns this case is commonly found after the analogy of themes in ya, as hwin, theme hwa- (interrog.) from hwya-mi; feminines in a use the first instrumental sing. (See 1st Instr. above.)

The Gothic language has this case only in the (after prepositions, and as particle before the comparative) of the demonstrative tha-; hve (as du hve, wherefore, why) of the pronominal theme hva-; sve (how) of the pronoun sva-1.

#### INSTRUMENTAL PLURAL.

This case is wanting in the Teutonic languages.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Old Saxon and Anglo-Saxon also have an instrumental in the declension of nouns and adjectives, the former using, like Old High German, the termination u, the latter the termination ê, like Gothic. Old Norse possesses no instrumental, and the only instance where it occurs in Old Frisian is the form this of the demonstrative pronoun. (Comp. the Declension of Pronouns, p. 199 sqq.)

# DATIVE AND ABLATIVE PLURAL.

The suffix bhi with -am forms the dative singular of the personal pronouns. This dat. sing. suffix -bhyam, to which was added the plural sign s, yields the suffix -bhyam-s for the formation of the dative and ablative plural. These cases occur in all Aryan languages except the Greek, which uses the locative instead of the dative, and the genitive instead of the ablative.

Sanskrit. Suffix bhya-s for bhyam-s, which is added to the theme in the same manner as the instrumental suffix -bhis. Examples:—(1) vag-bhyas, (2) mans-bhyas, (3) nama-bhyas, (4) bharad-bhyas, (5) bhrat-bhyas, (6) nau-bhyas, (7) bhra-bhyas, (8) sunu-

bhyas, (9) pati-bhyas, (10) aśvê-bhyas, neut. jugê-bhyas.

Latin. Suffix -bos, -bus, for a more ancient +-bios, +-bius (comp. minus for minius); a different development in the pronouns vobi-s=vo-bei-s (as ti-bi for ti-bei); themes in a reject the b; consonantal themes follow those in i. Examples:—(1) voci-bus, (3) nômini-bus, (5) mâtri-bus, (8) acu-bus; but themes in u also usually follow those in i, as fructi-bus: (9) ovi-bus, (10) ambô-bus, duô-bus, exceptional forms which strictly follow the rule. Forms such as parvi-bus, amici-bus, dii-bus, prove how in compounds the final o of the theme was weakened into i. The usual dat. and abl. suffix -is seems to pre-suppose an ancient -bios, or -fios for the prim. bhyams, Sansk. bhyas, as for instance, †equo-fios, whence equo-hios, whence equo-ios, whence equo-is, whence eque-is, whence Feminine themes in a have frequently preserved the equîs. primitive form, as equá-bus, deá-bus, filiá-bus; the usual is which has rejected the b must be derived from ais, as mensis from †mensais, †mensa-bios.

Gothic. Of the primitive suffix bhyam-s nothing remained but the simple -m, while in Old Norse, where we find thri-mr (tribus) by the side of thri-m, the primitive s also is represented of a form †thri-mas or †thri-mus=tri-bhyams (r for s). Themes in n take occasionally, as themes in a always do, am instead of -m. Examples:—(3) hana-m, neut. hairta-m, fem. tuggô-m, from †hanan-m, &c.; but abn-am, theme aban-, man; (4) fijandam (like 10), (5) brothru-m (like 8); (8) sunu-m, (9) mahti-m, gasti-m. (10) masc. vulfa-m, neut. juka-m, fem. gibô-m.

#### VOCATIVE.

The vocative, as we have said before, is no case, not even a word, but the noun in the form of an interjection, devoid there-

fore of a case-suffix. Only the singular has a vocative, whilst dual and plural supply it by the nominative, a fact which often

occurs in the singular too.

Sanskrit. The accent always on the first syllable; consonantal themes appear in the simple thematic form; masc. and fem. of themes in i and u lengthen the final vowel; feminine themes in d (10) weaken the d into  $\hat{e}$ ; themes ending in a diphthong or a long vowel do not form a vocative, but supply it by the nominative. Examples:—(1) vak, (2) manas, (3) namas, (4) bharan for  $^{\dagger}bharant$ ; (5) matar, (6) naus, (7) bhrus, (8) sunos, (9)  $pat\hat{e}$ ,  $av\hat{e}$ ; (10) asca, neut. yuga.

Greek. Consonantal themes commonly use the nominative for the vocative. Examples:—(1) παῖ for  $^{\dagger}$ παιδ; (3) δαῖμον (but  $^{\dagger}$ ηγεμών, nom.); (4) γέρον (but φέρων part. nom.); (5) σῶτερ, ρῆτορ, πάτερ. (6) ναῦ, (7) σῦς, (8) γλυκύ, (9) πόσι, πόλι; (10)

ίππε, neut ζυγόν; fem. χώρα, γλώσσα.

Latin. A vocative with masc themes under No. 10 only, as eque  $(= 7\pi\pi\epsilon)$ , prim. akva; themes in ya, as fill for filie.

Gothic. The vocal themes only form a vocative (3=nom.; 4 giband, like 10; 5=nom.); (8) sunau, handau, but also sunu. (9) gast for gasti, fem. anst; (10) vulf=\(^tvulfa\), fem. giba; themes in ya: hari, hairdi=\(^tharja\), \(^thirdja\).

### THE OLD TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

### STRONG DECLENSION.

All the ancient Teutonic dialects preserve in the declensions the distinction of themes in **a**, **i**, and **u**; and these thematic vowels giving the declension a peculiar colouring, we may well arrange all nouns under three declensions: viz. the declension in **a**, that in **i**, and that in **u**. The declension of themes ending in a consonant we shall treat under a separate head hereafter.

Though we find the themes in a, i, u, in all the different Teutonic dialects, we must not omit to notice that it is in Gothic only where they appear altogether distinct; though even here the thematic vowels are frequently dropped or weakened and the case-terminations much mutilated.

The thematic vowel of the declension in a is in Gothic distinctly preserved only in the dative singular and the dative

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Comp. pp. 169, 170, and pp. 268, 269.

nd accusative plural, while we find it in a lengthened form in he nominative and vocative plural. The feminines of this leclension lengthen the thematic vowel a into  $\delta$ , except in the 10m. accus. and voc. sing. where the a remains. The neuter 10m. and accus. sing. drop the thematic vowel as well as the 2 ase-sign.

While the declension in **a** comprises all three genders, the declension in **i** has only substantives of the masculine and feminine. The feminine, always showing an inclination to full and lengthy forms, which, as already mentioned, changed in the first declension the thematic vowel  $\check{a}$  into  $\delta$ , follows its natural propensities in the second declension also and takes 'gradation,' or what Sanskrit grammarians call 'guna,' by introducing an a before the thematic vowel  $i^1$ .

The declension in  $\mathbf{u}$  shelters its thematic vowel most persistently, so that we find the u preserved before the case-sign s of the nom. masc. and fem. as well as in the nom. neut., where the other two declensions have dropped their thematic vowels.

In the other Teutonic dialects also the three delensions in a, i, and u, can be traced; but it is the first only which is in a flourishing condition, uncorrupted by the influence of the other declensions and comprising the three genders. The declension in u is in most dialects in a dilapidated condition or encroached upon by the other declensions. In Old Norse however the declensions are in their fullest vigour, in some respects more so than in Gothic, while Old High German, though it has preserved some ancient case-signs which are lost in Gothic, has suffered great losses with the dilapidation of its declension in u, the plural of which has transgressed into the declension in i. In the same manner the Low German dialects, Anglo-Saxon, Old Frisian, and Old Saxon appear greatly mutilated, though in some respects they too show more ancient forms than we find in the Gothic dialect.

As to the case-terminations in the different Teutonic dialects we must let them pass a short review in order to compare them with the primitive case-signs which we have eliminated above.

#### NOMINATIVE SINGULAR.

The primitive case-sign -s, from the demonstrative root sa, has been dropped in all the Teutonic dialects except the Gothic and Old Norse, the latter however following its propensity to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Comp. pp. 22-25.

rhotacize, that is, to convert the sibilant s into r. But Get and Old Norse too, like all the other Teutonic tongues, havele the thematic vowel in the nom. sing., so that for the 0.14 Germ., A. S., O. S., O. Fris. fisk (visk or fisc), we find in Golds fisk-s, in Old Norse fisk-r. An exception to this rule is found in the u declension, which retains its thematic vowel in all the dialects but Old Norse, and in Gothic yields the full termintion us, as in nom. sing. Goth. sunu-s (son), O. H. Germ., A.S., O. S., O. Fris. sunu, O. N. son-r. The feminine nouns retain the thematic vowel in the a and u declensions, as Goth. sik, O. H. Germ., O. S. gëba, A. S. gifu (a darkened into u), O. Fris. jere; but O. N. giöf. Neuter nouns dispense with the themste vowel as well as the termination. Even in the cognate language the accusative is used to supply the nominative case; compare Goth. vaird, O. H. Germ. wort, A. S., O. S., O. Fris. word, O.N. ord, Lat. verbum.

## NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

The primitive case-sign -as (for sas = sa-sa) is most completely preserved in Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon, where the theme fiska- with the case termination -as yields the legitimate form fiskás, whilst in Gothic the combination of a + a results in the long vowel of, and hence the nom. plur. fiskos. Old Frisian and Old Norse rhotacize the case-sign -s and join the final -r directly to the theme, so that their nom. plur. is fiskar. Old High German preserves the long d which is the product of the combined a of the theme and a of the termination, but the final s is dropped, hence nom. plur. riská. In the feminine gender the Gothic and Old Norse alone retain the case-sign s (O. N. r), while the other dialects either use the simple thematic vowel (A. S. gifa, O. Fris. jeva), or its lengthened form (O. S. gibá, O. H. Germ. gibá or gibó); but Goth. gibós, O. N. giafar. neuter rejects the thematic vowels as well as the case-sign, except in Gothic, where we find in the nom. plur. the termination a.

## ACCUSATIVE SINGULAR.

The primitive case-sign -am after consonants, -m after vowels, from the demonstrative root am (comp. Sansk. ama-, hic), is altogether lost in the Teutonic strong declensions (themes in a, i, u), but preserved in the weak declension (consonantal themes in n), where it is converted into n (compare the accus. sing. Lat. -m,

Weak Declension, see below.

The masculine, chiefly of proper nouns in a, where even Gothic completely lost the case-sign; e.g. O. H. Germ. got (deus), sing. gota-n.

# ACCUSATIVE PLURAL.

The primitive -ams (= am, the case-sign of the accus. sing. + s, the termination of the plural) appears in Gothic as -ans, -ns, n being preferred to m before the sibilant s; hence fiskans (a), balgins (i), sununs (u), in the strong, and hanans (n), in the weak declension; so again the feminine anstins (i), handuns (u), tuggons (n), but gibos for gibans (a). Next to Gothic the Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon dialects most faithfully render the ancient case-sign, but suppress the consonant n in the same manner as the Gothic feminine in a, which elision causes the preceding vowel to be lengthened, hence A.S. fiscas, O.S. fiskas and fiskôs. Old High German drops the case-sign altogether and lengthens the thematic vowel, hence accus. like nom. plur. viskd; and Old Frisian rhotacizes the final s, hence the accus. like the nom. plur. fiskar. Old Norse drops the case-sign altogether and uses the simple thematic vowel as its accusative termination. This example is followed by the other dialects in the fem. accus. plur., as in the A. S. gifa, O. Fris. jeva, while Old High German and Old Saxon lengthen the thematic vowel in gëbô, gëbâ.

### GENITIVE SINGULAR.

The primitive termination -as, -s, is found in all the Teutonic dialects; even Old Norse, which on other occasions so frequently supplants the sibilant by the liquid r, preserves the original case-sign of the genitive singular, at least in the declension in a, while those in i and u admit rhotacism. The thematic vowel preceding the case-sign is variously modified. The Gothic has gradation of the thematic u into au, and yields the thematic a for i in the genitive fiski-s, where the Old Saxon dialect still owns the more ancient form fiska-s. But in the latter as well as in the other dialects, High and Low German, the thematic a is usually weakened into i or e, hence the genitive forms O. H. Germ. viskes, A. S. fisces, O. Fris. fiskes; while Old Norse, rejecting the thematic vowel altogether in the a declension, has fisks.

In the fem. the thematic vowel is in most dialects lengthened, whether it be succeeded by the case-sign or not; hence Gothie gibôs, O. H. Germ. gëbô, O. S. gëbâ, but A. S. gife, O. Fris. jew (a); Goth. anstais (gradation of i into ái), O. H. Germ. end, but O. S. ensti (i). The genitive forms in Old Norse are peculiar, where the masculine in a alone has the regular ancient case-sign, while the masculines in i and u, and the feminines in a and i adopt the liquid r, which is preceded throughout by the vowel a.

#### GENITIVE PLURAL.

The ancient case-sign -am, the probable derivation of which we have given above, is in Gothic reduced to the simple vowel  $\dot{\epsilon}_i$ feminine ô; hence the genitives fiskê, gibô. The other Teutonic dialects also have the lengthened  $\hat{o}$  or  $\hat{a}$ , or simply a as the genitive termination, as O. H. Germ. visko, O. S. fisko or fiska, A. S. fisca, but O. Fris. and O. N. fiska. The same terminations are used for the genitive plural feminine in the declensions i and u, but in the a declension the genitive feminine has in Old High German and Old Saxon the extended termination  $\hat{o}$ -n- $\hat{o}$ , A.S. and O. Fris. e-n-a, which seems to have been formed in analogy to the weak declension, where it occurs as the regular termina-Though Gothic has the simple  $\delta$  in gibo for the O. H. Germ.  $g\ddot{e}b\tilde{o}n\tilde{o}$ , the introduction of the liquid n must be of very ancient date, since it occurs in the Indian dialects too. (Comp. the gen. plur. fem. in a, Sansk. aśva-n-am for aśvam, where the Sanskrit termination a-n-am corresponds to the O. H. Germ.  $\delta$ -n- $\delta$ , A. S. e-n-a.)

# DATIVE SINGULAR.

A dative proper we have only in the masculine of the declension in a and of that in i, the latter having adopted the thematic vowel of the former. Thus we find in Gothic the dative fiska, O. H. Germ. viska, O. S. fiska, or weakened into fiske, A. S. fisce, O. Fris. fiska, or fiski, or fiske, O. N. fiski (a). The same terminations occur in the dative singular of the declension in i, e. g. Goth. balga, O. H. Germ. palka, O. S. gasta. The case-sign e or i is throughout the weakened form of a, wherefore the i cannot cause Umlaut. But in all declensions and genders other than those just mentioned the Teutonic languages are deprived of a true dative, and consequently use the locative singular to perform its functions. The termination of this locative is i, the origin of which we have mentioned before. It is generally

iropped, and the thematic vowel then has gradation, as in wahtai (i) for mahtaj(-i), handau (u fem.) for handav(-i); sunau (u masc.) for sunav(-i); hanin for hanin(-i) (n). The dative feminine gibai (a) may be considered a locative or a true dative.

### DATIVE PLURAL.

The primitive suffix bhyams has in the Teutonic languages dwindled down to the simple -m, e.g. Goth. fiska-m (masc.), gibó-m (fem.) (a); balgi-m, ansti-m (i); sunu-m, handu-m (u); hana-m, tuggô-m (n). Gothic only preserves the thematic vowels distinct in the terminations -am, -im, -um; Old High German puts um for am in the a declension, and all the other dialects prefer in all declensions the darkened form um in the different genders, though it must be mentioned that we meet also, chiefly in Old Frisian, with weakened forms such as em and on. This leads us to notice another change, namely, of m into n, which already occurs in late Old High German, sometimes in Frisian and almost regularly in Old Saxon, a change which moreover is accompanied by a weakening of the thematic vowel from u into o; hence the termination of dat. plur. on. Deserving of special notice is a form in Old Norse thri-m-r by the side of thrim (tribus), tveim-m-r for tveim (duobus), in which, besides the m, the s of the original case-sign is preserved, changed of course into r according to the phonetic laws of the Old Norse dialect, so that thri-mr stands for thri-ms = thri-mas = primitive tribhjams.

### INSTRUMENTAL.

There were originally two distinct suffixes for the instrumental singular, and therefore probably two distinct instrumentals with different functions, a distinction however which at an early period was obliterated. The first instrumental was formed with the demonstrative suffix a, rudiments of which we have in Old High German in one or two examples of feminine nouns in a. The second instrumental is formed with the suffix bhi, which is also frequently used to form the dative. (Comp. the declension of the Latin pronoun, e. g. ti-bi=tu-bhi-am, &c.) In the north European languages, both Slavonic and Germanic, the suffix bhi appears in the form of mi, probably in the combination -am for -ami, out of which the termination if or u of the instrumental in Old High German and Old Saxon are explained, so that the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Comp. p. 278.

O. H. Germ. rolfu would come from 'wolfam and this from' rolfa-mi. The Gothic has this instrumental in but few adverbial pronominal forms, such as the (comparative particle) from the pronominal theme tha-; hre (as du hve, why), from the pronominal base hra-; sre (as) from sra-. If these instrumental forms were the first instrumental with the suffix a, they would appear as tha-a, hra-a, &c., and these as tho, hvo, rather than the, hre. This instrumental é then originates like the Old High German i or u in the primitive a-mi, Teutonic for a-bhi. What we have said with regard to the instrumental é in Gothic holds good for the é of the instrumental in Anglo-Saxon, where it is used as the regular case-sign with all nouns that are capable of forming the mentioned case.

## THE PLURAL NEUTER WITH THE SUFFIX ir.

Several Teutonic dialects apply the suffix -ir (or its modified form -er or -r, or even -ar) in the formation of the plur. neut. of the declension in a. In Old High German we find this suffix often used with those neuter nouns which have lost their ancient termination -a. Thus, for example, kalp (calf) has the nom. plur. kelb-ir (the i of the suffix ir causes the Umlaut of a into e), and to this form are added the respective case-signs of the other cases, as in the gen. plur. kelb-ir-ô. The use of this suffix is more limited in Old Saxon, where we find but few forms, such as the genitives plur. ei-er-o, hon-er-o of ei, egg. hon, hen. Anglo-Saxon too does not patronize this suffix very largely, and in the few words where it does occur it is always followed by the ancient case-sign -u of the nom. plur. as well, e.g.  $\ddot{a}g$ , egg, nom. äy-r-u; cealf, calf, nom. plur. cealf-r-u; cild, child, nom. plur. cild-r-u; lamb, lamb, nom. plur. lamb-r-u. For the plural hriser-u, armenta, there is no singular hrýd, but hrýder, the suffix -er having been adopted in the singular too. In Old Frisian the suffix -ir, in the modification -ar, or -er, is used in the formation of the plural of the following words: kind, child, plur. kind-cr-a or kind-er, or the ancient form kinda; kláth, cloth, dress, plur. kláth-er-a, or kláth-ar, or klátha; horn, horn, plur. horn-ar; bon, mandatum, plur. bonn-ar, bonna and bon. hrither (Germ. rind), has, as in Anglo-Saxon, the suffix in the singular also.

## THE UMLAUT IN THE OLD TEUTONIC DECLENSIONS.

The reader will do well first to refer to our remarks concerning the formation of Umlaut in general, in our chapter on Old

Teutonic vowels1. In no Teutonic language have the inflexional forms so wide a range of influence upon the vowel of the stem of the word as in the Old Norse, where both i and u, vowels which very frequently occur in the terminations, may cause Umlaut, while in the other Teutonic languages this prerogative is restricted to the vowel i, and the Gothic dialect is deprived of Umlaut altogether. The frequent occurrence of the Umlaut in the declensions of the Old Norse imparts to this language a degree of softness and richness of sound for which we might hardly find a parallel in any other Teutonic tongue, ancient or In order to illustrate this remark we need only quote the different cases of the declension of the theme: magu-, son; sing. mögr, magr, megi, mög; plur. megir, maga, mögum, mögu. The reader will be able to account for these different changes or modifications of the vowel, if he will apply to this particular instance the laws and rules which regulate the occurrence of the Umlaut in general. We may therefore here restrict ourselves to certain phenomena of Umlaut which are peculiar to particular declensions and particular dialects.

Declension in a.—In Old High German this declension shows no Umlaut except in the neuter plural, where it may be effected by the suffix -ir, as in kalp, plur. kelbir. The Old Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, and Old Frisian languages have no Umlaut in the declension in a, because the case-signs lack the element which begets the Umlaut. In Old Norse, on the contrary, it is of frequent occurrence, as a reference to the paradigms will A few cases require special explanation. The feminine nouns have in the nom. sing. dropped an u, the weakened form of an original a, the effect of which u is still perceptible in the Umlaut of the a of the stem into  $\ddot{o}$ . The same Umlaut occurs in the dat. sing., where the u was dropped at a later period of the language, but its effect, the Umlaut, remained. Examples: —theme giafa, gift, nom. sing.  $gi\ddot{o}f$  (for  $gi\ddot{o}fu$ ), dat.  $gi\ddot{o}f(u)$ . Neuter nouns originally had in the nom. and accus. plur. the termination -u, which, though dropped, left the Umlaut of a into ö behind, e.g. fat, vessel, plur. föt for fötu.

Declension in i.—All the Teutonic dialects (Gothic of course excepted) show Umlaut in this declension.

Old High German. Umlaut of a into e, caused by the i of the termination, takes place in the plural throughout, as well as in the gen. and dat. sing. of the feminine (unless the fem. is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See pp. 26 - 28.

reduced to the simple stem of the word). Examples:—pale, hide, plur. pelki; anst, gen. ensti, plur. ensti. In the gen. plur. the j (from the thematic i) is often dropped, but the Umlaut remain; as pelko, ensto, for pelkjo, ensto.

Old Saxon. The Umlaut of a into e may occur in the plural, and in the feminine in the gen. and dat. sing. as well, but it is not of general occurrence. Examples:—gast, guest, plur. gesti

(or gasti); anst, favour, plur. ensti (or ansti).

Anglo-Saxon. The termination i of the dat. sing. and of the nom. and accus. plur., which in the course of time was dropped, caused Umlaut, which remained, e.g. masc. nom. sing. fôt, dat. fêt for fêti, from fôti; nom. accus. plur. fêt, fem. nom. sing. mús, dat. mýs, nom. accus. plur. mýs, &c.

Old Frisian. The masculine gender has two words where Umlaut remained after the terminational *i* had been dropped, namely föt, nom. accus. plur fét; tôth, nom. accus. plur. téth; but there is no Umlaut either in the dat. sing. of the masculine

or in any case of the feminine gender.

Old Norse. Some of the masculine nouns of this declension adopt a j before the vowels a and u of the terminations, which j, whether retained or dropped, causes Umlaut of the preceding syllable, as in belgr, belgjar, where the j appears in certain cases, and gestr, gestar, where it is dropped throughout and yet its Umlaut remains. In the feminine nouns gás, műs, lűs and brűn, the terminations ir and i, dropped later on, caused the Umlaut in gés, mỹs, lỹs, brỹn.

Declension in u.—This declension shows no Umlaut in any dialect except in Old Norse, where, just in this declension, the Umlaut is most richly developed. (See the paradigms in u.) It requires but few explanations. The nom. mögr of the theme magur (son) owes its Umlaut to an earlier mögur for magur, Goth. magus. The dat. sing. fem. tönn of the theme tannu- (tooth), owes its Umlaut to the ancient case-sign u, which was dropped at a later period.

Note.—The weak declension has Umlaut in no dialect except Old Norse, where the terminational u converts the a of the stem into  $\ddot{o}$ .

# PARADIGMS.

# VOCAL THEMES (STRONG DECLENSIONS).

# THEMES IN a.

# Gothic.

Themes:—fiska-, gibb-, vaúrda-.

	MASCULINE.		FEMININE.		NEUTER.	
-	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen. Dat.	fisk-s (fish) fiski-s fiska	fisk-ê fiska-m	giba (gift) gibb-s gibai	gibô-s gib-ô gibô-m	vaúrd (word) vaúrdi-s vaúrda	vaúrda vaúrd-8 vaúrda-m
Accus. Voc.	fisk fisk	fiska-ns fiskô-s	giba giba	gibô-s gibô-s	vaúrd vaúrd	vaúrda vaúrda

# Old High German.

Themes:—viska-, gëbb- (for këpb-), worta-.

Masculine.			Femi	NINE.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. visk (fish) viske-s viska visk	Plur. viskâ visk-8 visku-m viskâ	Sing. got (god) gota-n	Sing. gëba (gift) gëbb, gëba gëbb, gëbu gëba	Plur. gëbô, gëbâ gëbô-n-ô gëbô-m gëbô, gëbâ

NEUTER.				
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr	wort (word) worte-s worta wort	wort wort-8 wortu-m wort	kalp (calf) kalbe-s kalba kalp kalb-u	kelb-ir kelb-ir-ð kelb-iru-m kelb-ir

Old Saxon.

# Themes:—fisca-, gëbb-, worda-.

	Masci	FEM	ININE.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr.	Sing. fise (fish) fisea-s, fisce-s fisea, fisce fise fise-u	Plur. fiscô-s, fiscâ-s fisc-û, fisc-û fiscun, fisco-n fiscô-s, fiscâ-s	Sing. göba (gift) göbâ, göbâ göba, göbâ göba	Plur. gēbā gēbō-a-ō gēbu-n, gēbo-a gēbā 
		Neuter.		
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc.	word worda-s, worde-s words, words words	word word-ô wordu-n word	bac (back) baca-s, bace-s baca, bacs bac	bacu bac-8 bacu-n bacu

# Anglo-Saxon.

# Themes:—fisca-, daga-, gifa-, worda-, fata-.

MASCULINE.			FEMININE.		
Gen. Dat. Accus.		Plur. fiscá-s fisc-à fiscu-m fiscá-s	Sing.  gifu (gift)  gife  gife  gife  gife	Plur. gifa gife-n-a gifu-m gifa	
Instr.	fink-8	Neut	· · · ·	••	

NEUTER.				
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen.	word worde-s	word word-â	fät (vat) fäte-s	fatu fat-à
Dat. Accus. Instr.	worde word wo <b>rd-ê</b>	wordu-m word	fäte fät fät-ê	fatu-m fatu

# Old Frisian.

Themes:—fiska-, jeva-, worda-, skipa-.

Masculine.			Fem	ININE.
Nom.	Sing.	Plur. fiska-r, fiska	Sing.	Plur.
	fiski-s, fiske-s fiska, -i, -e	fisk-a fisku-m, -on, -em fiska-r, fiska	jeve (gitt) jeve jeve	jeve-n-a jevu-m, -on jeva
		NEUTER.		
	Sing.	NEUTER.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen.	Sing. word (word) wordis, -es		Sing. skip (ship) skipi-s, -es	

# Old Norse.

# Themes:—fiska-, arma-, giafa-, orða-, fata-.

Masculine.				FEM	ININE.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. fisk-r (fish) fisk-e fisk fisk	Plur. fiska-r fisk-a fisku-m, -om fiska	Sing.  arm-r (arm)  arm-s  armi  arm	Plur. arma-r arm-a örmu-m arma	Sing.  giöf (gift)  giafa-r  giöf(u)  giöf	Plur. giafa-r giaf-a giöfu-m, om giafa-r

		Neute	R.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. orð (word) orð-e orði orð	Plur.  orð  orð-a  orðu-m  orð	Sing.  fat (vat) fat-e fati fat	Plur, föt fat-a fötu-m, -om föt

### Notes to the Declension in a.

### Gothic.

1. The following words belong to the declension in a.

Masc. áiþs, oath (Germ. eid); asts, branch (Germ. ast); bagus, tree (Germ. baum, cf. beam); dags, day (Germ. tag); hunds, dog (Germ. hund, cf. hound); hláibs, bread, cf. loaf; láubs, lef (Germ. laub); stáins, stone (Germ. stein); raír, man, cf. latrir; vigs, way (Germ. weg); rulfs, wolf; þiubs, thief; sáits, sea (Germ. see); snáivs, snow (Germ. schnee); fugls, bird (Germ. vogel, cf. fowl); sitls, seat (Germ. sessel); svibls, sulphur (Germ. schwefel); þiudans, king; himins, heaven (Germ. himmel); aks, field (Germ. acker, cf. acre); figgrs, finger; tagrs, tear (Germ. zähre).

FEM. uírþa, earth; bóka, book; faþa, path (Germ. pfad); guírda, girdle (Germ. gurte); giba, gift (Germ. gabe); kaírds, herd (Germ. heerde); kreila, hour, cf. while (Germ. weile=time); rasla, rest (Germ. rast); saúrga, care (Germ. sorge); stáiga, path (Germ. steig); ramba, womb; þiuda, people, gens; néþla, nædle, nadel; sáirala, soul (Germ. seele); stibna, voice (Germ. stimme); gúilsa, goat (Germ. geiß); uhva, water; diupiþa, depth; sunja, truth.

NEUT barn, child; baúrd, plank (Germ. bord); blób, blood (Gem. blut); daúr, door (Germ. thür); hús, house (Germ. haus); jér, year (Germ. jahr); juk, yoke (Germ. joch); kaúrn, corn; lamb, lamb (Germ. lamm); land, land (Germ. land); leik, body (cf. Germ. leiche, Engl. like); mél (time, cf. Germ. mal); més, month; sall, salt (Germ. salz); skip, ship; vaúrd, word; tagl, hair (cf. Engl. tail, Germ. zagel); áigin, property (cf. Germ. cigen, Engl. own); maúrþr, murder (Germ. mord); silubr, silver (Germ. silber); eisarn, iron (Germ. eisen); hatis, hatred, hate (Germ. haß); háubiþ, head (cf. Germ. haupt); kniu, knee (Germ. knie); triu, tree.

- 2. Words of the masculine gender which have no plural may belong to the declension in a or i, because both are in the singular alike; and those of which the nominative singular is lost may belong to the masculine or neuter gender.
- 3. Themes ending in sa reject the s of the nominative singular after the s of the stem, in order to avoid the harsh succession of two identical sibilants, hence hals, neck (Germ. hals), instead of hals-s from the theme halsa. The genitive is of course

**Lalzi-s**, &c. Themes ending in ra also suppress the case-sign s if the r is preceded by a vowel, hence vair, vir, nom. sing. of the theme vaira; but if a consonant precedes the r, the regular formation takes place, as akr-s, &c.

- 4. Words of the feminine gender which occur in the dat. sing. only might belong to the declension in a or i; those of which we know the nom. plur. only might be masculine or feminine.
- 5. Neuter nouns which show the gen. sing. only may be considered masculine or neuter.

### Old High German.

1. The following words belong to the Declension in a.

Masc. diop, thief (Germ. dieb); dorn, thorn (Germ. dorn); eid, oath (Germ. eid); hals, neck (Germ. hals); hleip, bread; hund, dog (Germ. hund); hof, court-yard (Germ. hof); keist, spirit (Germ. geist, ef. goast); muot, animus (Germ. muth, ef. mood); mund, mouth (Germ. mund); nid, envy (Germ. neid); poum, tree (Germ. baum, ef. beam); scaz, treasure (Germ. schatz); slap, staff (Germ. stab); stein, stone (Germ. stein); visk, fish; vokal, bird (Germ. vogel); aram, arm; fadum, thread (Germ. faden); rekan, rain (Germ. regen); achar, field (Germ. acker); vinkar, finger; manod, month (Germ. monat).

FEM. aha, water; éa, éwa, law; ërda, earth (Germ. erde); huîla, mora (Germ. weile); këpa, gift (Germ. gabe); lêra, doctrine (Germ. lehre); séla, soul (Germ. seele); stimna, voice (Germ. stimme); stunta, hour (Germ. stunde); straza, street

(Germ. straße); wampa, womb.

NEUT. chini, child (Germ. kind); chorn, corn; chrût, herb (Germ. kraut); dinc, thing (Germ. ding); hros, horse (Germ. ross); jâr, year (Germ. jahr); joh, joke (Germ. joch); lamp, lamb (Germ. lamm); loup, leaf (Germ. laub); parn, child; pein, bone (Germ. bein); scif, ship (Germ. schiff); scâf, sheep (Germ. schaf); isarn, iron (Germ. eisen); silapar, silver (Germ. silber); wazar, water (Germ. waßer); houpit, head (Germ. haupt).

2. In Old High German also the singular of nouns masculine is the same in the declensions in a and i, and it therefore is sometimes difficult to say to which declension they belong, especially since such words often form their plural in a different manner, either in a or i, in different documents.

### Old Saxon.

1. The following words belong to the declension in a.

MASC. bom, tree (Germ. baum); dag, day Germ. tag); del, deal (Germ. theil); drom, dream (Germ traum); fisk, fish; kund, dog; kunn, kiss; mith, mouth; slap, sleep (Germ. schlaf); sles, stone (Germ. stein); thiob, thief; slrom, stream; thorn, thom; mig, way (Germ. weg); wer, vir, man; engil. angel; fugl, bird; himil, heaven; ërl, earl; hëban, heaven; fingar, finger; cuning, king (Germ. könig); bërag, mountain (Germ. berg); séo, sea; suco, snow.

l'em. aha, water; ërtha, earth; gëba, gift; hëlpa, help; huila, time, while (Germ. weile); léra, doctrine; séola, soul; sorga, care (Germ. sorge); strála, street; stëmna, voice (Germ. stimme); wahta, watch (Germ. wacht); minnea, love (Germ. minne).

NEUT. hac, back; blad, leaf (Germ. blatt); barn, child; fat, vessel, vat (Germ. faß); fiur, fire; folc, folk, people; gold, gold; hdv. house; júr, year; kind, proles; corn, corn; crúd, herb (Germ. kraut); lioht, light; sëgal, sail (Germ. segel); técas, token; silubur, silver; watar, water; wëdar, weather (Germ. wetter); hôbid, head (Germ. haupt); knëo, knee; trëo, tree.

2. The two different forms of the nom, and accus. plur. neut. deserve special notice; they are not applied, one or the other, at random, but as it would appear in accordance with the following rules: All words consisting of a short syllable have preserved the ancient termination u, as bac, bacu; blad, bladu; grab, grabu; tal, talu; while words with a long syllable reject the termination; whence baru, crid, thing, wib, word, remain unchanged in the nominative and accusative plural.

#### Anglo-Saxon.

1. The following words belong to the declension in a.

M vsc. heerg, mountain (Germ. berg); cëol, keel; copp, cup; craft; craft; dág, day (Germ. tag); dæl, deal; dóm, doom; ëard, holl; feld, field; fise, fish; gäst, guest; gást, ghost; heáp, heap; hrino, ring; mór, marsh; mú8, mouth; ráp, rope; seeg, vir; staf; staff; stáa, stone; streám, stream; tear, tear; wæg, wave; weg, way; weard, warden, guard; wind, wind; wulf, wolf; wgrm, worm; magel, nail; heofon, heaven; hrafn, raven; segn, sign; fiager; finger; penor, thunder; cyning, king; móna8, month; hlaford, lord.

YEM. duru, door; gifu, gift; lufu, love; sceamu, shame; scolu,

hool; -waru, complexus incolarum; land-waru, province; burhuru, civitas; cëaster-waru, arx.

NEUT. äg, egg; bäc, back; bán, bone; bëarn, child; cëalf, lf; cild, child; fät, vessel (cf. vat, Germ. faß); gëat, gate; äs, glass; gräs, grass; hors, horse; lamb, lamb; leáf, leaf; ht, light; swëord, sword; wëorc, work; wif, woman (cf. wife); rd, word; yfel, evil; cicen, chicken; mæden, maiden; tacen, ken; wästen, waste, desert.

2. In Anglo-Saxon we have, as in Old Saxon, two forms for se nom. and accus. plur. neut., the termination u being prerved in words consisting of a short syllable, and rejected after ng syllables and in words consisting of more than one syllable.

#### Old Frisian.

1. The following words belong to the declension in a.

Masc. bám, tree (Germ. baum), bár, villager (Germ. bauer); il, deal; erm, arm; éth, oath; fish, fish; hdp, heap; kláth, coat, oth; stef, staff; tusk, tooth, tusk; wëi, way; dëgan, man, vir; nger, finger; monath, month (Germ. monat).

FEM. ierde, earth (Germ. erde); nose, nose; séle, soul (Germ. eele); sine, sinew, nerve; spréke, speech (Germ. sprache); déd,

eed; néd, need; tid, time, tide; wrald, world.

NEUT. bén, bone; bern, child; hêr, hair; hús, house; kind, hild; láf, leaf; muth, mouth; haved, head; rîke, kingdom Jerm. reich).

- 2. In documents of a later period the plural of the masculine thes in the nominative, and especially in the accusative, a or a, astead of ar, and in the dative on for um.
- 3. The feminine nouns of this declension are not easily disnguished from those of the declension in i, because the nom. ng, and the gen. plur. only have distinctive terminations.
- 4. The plural of the neuter has the two forms of the nomiative as in the Saxon dialects, one preserving the case-sign u, he other rejecting it and forming the nom. plur. like the noming.

### Old Norse.

1. The following words belong to the declension in a.

Masc. armr, arm; brunnr, fountain, well (Germ. brunnen); agr, day (Germ. tag); domr, doom; draumr, dream (Germ.

traum); fishr, fish; haukr, hawk; heimr, world; hëstr, horse; hringr, ring; moor, mind, mood; stockr, wood; vindr, wind; steinm, stone; praell, slave; rër, vir, man; mir, wall (Germ. mauer); háls, neck (Germ. hals); is, ice; engill, angel; fugl, bird (Germ. vogel); iarl, earl; piodan, king; himin, heaven; hratn, raven; hamar, hammer; akur, field (Germ. acker); sign, victory (Germ. sieg); konungr, rex.

FEN. giöf, gift; giörð, girdle; gröf, grave (Germ. grab); köll, hall; iörð, earth; mön, mane; nös, nose; rös, rest; sin, sinew; seil, rope (Germ. seil); skömm, shame; vomb, womb; fiöður,

feather.

NEUT. bak, back, tergum; barn, child; blað, leaf (Germ. blatt); fat, vessel, vat (Germ. faß); glas, glass; gras, grass; kross, horse (Germ. ross); lamb, lamb; mál, time; rúm, room, space; orð, word; sax, knife; skip, ship; tal, speech, tale; kagl, hail (Germ. hagel); tagl, tail (Germ. zagel); vín, wine; þak, roof (Germ. dach); najn, name; vatn, water; sumar, summer; föðr, fodder; silfr, silver.

- 2. The case-sign -i of the dative sing. masc. is sometimes dropped in monosyllabic words with a long radical vowel, as in hring, is, &c.; on the whole this termination seems to be inorganic, because it never causes Umlaut (except in degi, dative of dagr, day, which however seems to pass into the declension in u, as do many other words which sometimes form the whole plural after the latter declension).
- 3. Some words adopt forms from the declension in i, others form their plural both in a and i, as vegr, way, plur. vegar and vegir.
- 4. Most words of the feminine in a incline to the declension in i, after which they in later times regularly form their plural, as giöf, gift, plur. giafar, later on giafir. These words also form their dative singular sometimes in -u, as giöfu for giöf; the latter seems to be the more recent form.
- 5. The case-sign -i of the dative sing. neuter, like that of the masculine, does not cause Umlaut.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The case-sign -r of the nominative singular is assimilated to the preceding consonant, hence, steinn, praell, for stein-r, &c.; in hals, iarl, himin, &c., it is dropped altogether.

# THEMES IN ja (ya).

# Gothic.

Themes: — harja-, army (Germ. heer); halrdja-, herdsman (Germ. hirte); sunjb-, truth; þiujb, servant; kunja-, genus, kin; andbahtja, ministerium (Germ. amt).

Masculine.			FEMIN	FEMININE.		Neuter.	
Sing. Nom. Gen.	harjis (army) harjis	(hairdeis (herds- man) hairdeis	sunja (truth)	þivi þiujðs	kuni kunis	andbahti andbahteis	
Dat. Accus. Voc.	karja kari kari kari	hairdia hairdi hairdi hairdi	sunjai sunja sunja sunja	piujai   piujai   piuja   pivi	kunja kunja kuni kuni	andbahtja andbahti andbahti andbahti	
PLUR.							
Nom.	harjôs &c.	hairdjôs &c.	sunjôs &c.	þiujós &c.	kunja &c.	andbahtja &c.	

# Old High German.

	Masculin	E.	FEMIN	INE.
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Inrtr.	hirti (herdsman) hirte-s hirta hirti hirt-u	hirt-â hirt-8 hirtu-m hirtâ	sippja, sippa (peace) sippjô, sippô sippjô, sippô(-u) sippja, sippa	sippjő, sippő(-â) sippjő-n-ö, sippönő sippjő-m, sippöm sippjő, sippö

	Neuter.			
	Sing.	Plur.		
Nom. Gen. Dat.	kunni kunnje-s, kunnes kunnje, kunne	kunni kunnj-8, kunn8 kunnju-m, kunnum		
Accus. Instr.	kunni kunnju, kunnu	kunni		

# Old Sexon.

	Маессен	E.	Neur	TER.
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr.	kirdi kirdica, ress kirdica, ress kirdi kirdis	kirdő, -cő kirdjun kirdjös	cunni (kin) cunnjes, -cas cunnje, -ca cunni cunni	cunni cunnjô, -cô cunnjun cunni

# Anglo-Saxon.

	MASCUL	INB.	Neu	TER.
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	kirde	kirdás	rice (regnum)	ricu
Gen.	kirdes	hirdû	rîces	ricu rică
Dat.	hirde	hirdum	rice	ricum
Accus.	hirde	hirdás	rice	ricu
Instr.	_		rick	

# Old Norse.

Themes: — herja-, army; hirðja-, herdsman; eggja-, edge festja-, fetter, chain; kynja-, kin; rikja-, regnum.

		Mase	CULINE.			FEMIN	INE.	
	Sing.		Sing.		Sing.		, ,	Plur
Nom. Gen.	her-r	herja-r herj a	hir8i r   hir8i-a	hirða-r hirð-a	egg eggia-r	egyja-r egyj-a	festi festa-r	festa fest i
Dat. Accus.	her(-i)	herju-m herja	hirði	hirðu-m	egg(-ju)	eggju-m	festi festi	festu festa

		Neut	ER.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. kyn kyn-s kyni kyni		Sing. ríki ríki-s ríki ríki	Plur. riki rîkj-a(-a) rîkju-m(-um) riki

wheat (Germ. waizen); lákki, physician; risi, giant (Germ. riese; scini, friend; and all words with the ending -are, -en c-ari, Goth. -areis.

FEM. alti, old age Germ. alter); chundi (Germ. kunde, notitia; héri, glory; heili Germ. heil, salus); huldi, favour (Germ. huld; mihhili, magnitude (Germ. größe); nähi, proximity (Germ. nähe; tinti, det th. Germ. tiefe); sconi, beauty (Germ. schöne);

tout'i, baptism Germ. taufe).

NETT. arpi, inheritance (Germ. erbe); ampahti, office (Germ. amt; chruci. cross; chunni, kin; hirni, brain (Germ. him); antlutti, face (Germ. antlitz); chwini, corn; enti, end; heri, amy (Germ. heer); nezzi, net (Germ. netz); ôli, oil; peri, berry; petti, bed (Germ. bett); rihhi, empire (Germ. reich); antworti, answer; steinili, calculus; ringiri, annulus; heiminki, home (Germ. heimat, patria); arunti, messenger; einôti, solitude (Germ. einöde); kiwati, dress, vestitus.

2. The masculine and neuter in ja vocalize the j in the nom and accus. sing. into i, if it occurs at the end of a word, as kirti from the theme hirtja, chunni theme chunnja; in the other cases the j is usually dropped. More frequently the thematic j is preserved in the feminine, though weakened into e.

#### Old Saxon.

1. The following words belong to the declension in ja.

Masc. hirdi, custos (Germ. hirte); meti, meat; wini, friend; slegi, homicidia; maki, sword; words ending in ári, eri.

FEM. bendi, bandage (Germ. binde); eldi, age; heri, army; huldi, favour; meri, sea (Germ. meer); mennishi, humanitas.

NEUT. arbeili, labour (Germ. arbeit); arundi, messenger; bi-lidi, picture (Germ bild); endi, end; kunni, kin; curni, corn; urlagi, war; riki, empire (Germ. reich); giwädi, dress; giwirki, work; bed, bed; inwid (dolus) for beddi, inwiddi, gen. beddjer, inwiddjes.

2. The j of the themes in ja is preserved, except in the nom. and accus. sing. masc. and neut., and in the nom. and accus. plur. neut., because these cases have no case-signs, and consequently the j is vocalized into i, as hirdi, cunni. But if in the case-terminations the original a is preserved, then the j is commonly weakened into e, as accus. sing. hirdea for hirdja (compare the dative hirdje): the same weakening process also occurs before the case-vowel d.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> More frequently of the masculine and neuter gender.

## Anglo-Sexon.

1. The following words may be considered belonging to the edension in ja-

Masc. bere, hordeum; brywe, confingration; ele. cl.: ende, ad; here, army Germ. heer; hige, friend; huree, wheat; less, physician; lige, flame; mere, sword; mere, lake: mere, neat; sige, victory; words ending in ere, as facere, fisher; hunter, hunter.

Fig. brado, breadth; Ialo, health; Iyld, favor: acres, militude; vido, old age.

NEUT. inne. house, cf. inn: vrfe. inheritance: rice, empire (Germ. reich); genære. boundary; getialre, kulling; gelæte, mitus (Germ. geleite.

2. Masculine nouns in jo weaken the j into e, in the number and accus, sing., and frequently drop it in all other cases. Sometimes the j is preserved before the case-terminations in the weakened form e. The neuter nouns which have retained the j in the nom, and accus, sing, in the weakened form e take in the nom, and accus, plur, the termination s. Such however are iew, because most of them have entirely lost the characteristic semi-vowel of the thematic ja.

#### Old Prizian.

Of the the themes in ja no trace is left except the termination e in the nom. sing. of mase, and neuter nouns. e. z. idiare, (hat-bearer), gen holeres; hiskthe family, neut... gen holeres Words derived from Latin frequently drop this e. the weakened form of j; e. g. abbit for abbete, abbot; alter for altare, altar; printer for prealere. priest. But i for j vocalized in bit late, gen. bites; hiri (army, gen. hires.

### Old Norse.

1. The following words belong to the declension in jaMasc. hirdir, herdsman (Germ. hirte); einir, juniper; endir,
end; fylkir, dux; hellir, antrum (Germ. hinhe; lackner, parnician; mackir, sword; stillir, king; affir, emperen; ellir,
willow (Germ. weide); oegir, sea.

oi, burden (Germ. lade); elf, river; festi, chain;
the water; mafri, account; ellir, oid acce;
Germ. milde).

ne; kyn, kin net, net; lift, dwelling;

engi, meadow; epli, apple; fylik, province; klaedi, dress (Germ. kleid); merki, mark, sign.

2. Words with a short syllable preserve the j of ja then only when it is followed by the thematic vowel or by a case-sign; words with a long syllable, on the contrary, drop the j before a terminational vowel, but they preserve it in the vocalized form i before the case-sign r of the nominative, and s of the genitive singular, and in all those cases which have lost the termination altogether, i.e. dat. and accus. sing., nom. sing., and nom. and accus. plur. of the neuter.

### THEMES IN Va.

### Gothic.

Themes: -- piva-, servant, famulus; kniva-, knee; sáiva-, sea.

	S	INGULAR.	
Nom.	piu-s	sáiv-s	kniu
Gen.	pivi-s	sáivi-s	knivi-s
Dat.	piva	sáiv	kniva
Accus.	piu	sáiv	kniu
Voc.	biu	sáiv	kniu

# Old High German.

Themes:—snéwa-, snow; kniwa-, knee.

	Singui	LAR.
Nom.	méo (snow)	kniu, knëo
Gen.	snêwe-s	kniwe-s, knëwe-s
Dat.	snêwa	kniwe, knëwe
Accus.	8nêo	kniu, knëo
Instr.	snêw-u	kniw-u, knew-u

### Old Saxon.

Themes:—snewa-, snow; trewa-, tree.

Singular.		
Nom.	snêu, snêo	trëu, trëc
Gen.	snêwa-s	trëwa-s
Dat.	snê wa	trëwa
Accus.	enĉo, <b>en</b> ĉu	trëu, trëo
Instr.	snêw-u	treu-u

#### Old Norse.

Themes:—hiarva, sword; döggva-, dew; fiörva-, life.

	MASCULINE.		FEM	ININE.	NEUTER.	
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	hiör hiör-s hiörvi hiör	hiörva-r hiörv-a hiör(v)u-m hiörva	dögg döggra-r dögg(vu) dögg	döggva-r döggv-a döggvu-m döggva-r	fiör fiör-s fiörvi fiör	fiör fiörv-a fiörvu-m fiör

## Notes to the Declension in Va.

#### Gothic.

Themes in va, preceded by a short syllable, vocalize the v when it is followed by the case-sign s of the nom. sing., and when it occurs at the end of the word; hence of the theme piva (famulus) the nom. sing. is pius, the accus. and voc. piu; of the neut. theme kniva (knee) the nom. and accus. kniu. But when v is preceded by a long vowel it remains unaltered, e. g. theme  $s \acute{a}iva$ , sea, nom.  $s \acute{a}ivs$ , accus.  $s \acute{a}iv$ .

## Old High German.

Themes in va (va) are confined to the masculine and neuter. The nom. and accus. sing. always vocalize the w, while the oblique cases of the singular and all cases of the plural preserve it; e.g. sneb, snow, gen. snewes; kniu, knee, gen. kniwes.

### Old Saxon.

The v before the thematic vowel is vocalized into u or o when it occurs at the end of a word; hence the masc. themes séva, sea; éwa, law; snéwa, snow, have in the nom. and accus. sing. séu or zéo, éu or éo, snéu or snéo; the neuter themes trëwa, tree; hréwa, corpse, in the nom. and accus. sing, and plur. trëu, trëo; hréu, hréo. But occasionally the w is dropped altogether, e. g. sé, sea, dat. sing. sée; or the vocalized w causes the thematic vowel or case-sign to be dropped, e. g. éo, law, dat. sing. éo by the side of éwa. The feminine theme thiwó (ancilla) drops the

thematic vowel altogether and vocalizes the w, hence nom. and accus. sing. this. The nom. this which occurs in but one instance may be explained from a theme this jo.

## Anglo-Saxon.

The feminine nouns see (sea), eá (river), are indeclinable in the singular; occasionally we find the genitive se-s, eá-s (Goth. sáiri-s, abró-s); nom. plur. se-s, eá-s; dat. plur. se-m, eá-m.

#### Old Frisian.

The masculine and neuter themes drop the w altogether, e.g. s., sea, dat. and accus. se; kni, kné, dat. kni, kné, accus. kni, kniu.

#### Old Norse.

In all genders c is preserved when followed by a terminational vowel; where it has disappeared the Umlaut which it has caused still remains.

Encroaching forms of the declension in i we have in the mase. lit-r, colour; lög-r, sea, lake; kiölr, ship; siör, mos, which in the dat. sing. drop the i, and in the accus. plur. adopt i for u. Forms of the declension in a we find in hiör, sword. The dat. sing. of the feminine hönd is hendi. The forms of the neuter fe (pecus) are altogether irregular.

#### THEMES IN I.

### Gothic.

Themes: -balgi- (Germ. balg), anstai-, favour.

Mascrune.			FEMININE.
Niva. Gira. Das. Arrus. Vire.	Sing. helps helps help help help	Plur. balgai-a balgi-a balgi-a balgi-a	Plur.

## Old High German.

Themes:—palki-, pellis; ansti-, favour.

MASCULINE.			Frmi	NINE.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr.	Sing.  palc  palke-s  palk-a  palc  palk-u	Plur.  pelkî  pelkj-ô (-ëô)  pelki-m  pelkî	Sing. anst ensti, anst ensti, anst anst	Plur.  enstî enstj-0 (ëô) ensti-m enstî

## Old Saxon.

Themes:—gasti-, guest; ansti-, favour.

	MASCULINE.			FEMININE.		
Nom Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr.	Sing. gast gasta-s, -es gast-a, -e gast gast-u	Plur. gasti, gesti gastj-6, geste-6 gastju-n, gestju-n gasti, gesti	Sing.  anst ansti, ensti ansti, ensti anst	Plur.  ansti, ensti anstj-6, enste-6 anstju-n, enstju-n ansti, enst		

## Anglo-Saxon.

Themes: - buri-, son, barn; fóti-, foot; dædi, deed; músi-, mouse.

MASCULINE.				FEMINI	NE.		
Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. byre Gen. †byre-s Dat. †byre	byre byr-â byru-m	fôt fôte-s fêt	fêt fôt-â fôtu-m	dæd dæde dæde	dæda dæd-å cædu-m	mûs mûse mys	mJs mAs-a mAsu-n
Accus. byre Instr. thur-â	byre byre	fêt fôt fôt-A	fötu-m föt	dæde dæd(e)	dæda	mys m <b>ús</b>	mû mŷi

## Old Frisian.

Themes:—liodi-, song (Germ. lied); fôti-, foot; nédi-, need.

Masculine.				Feminine.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. wanting.	Plur. liode liod-a {liode-m -um, -on} liode	Sing.  fôt fôte-s fôt-(e) fôt	Plur. fåt fôt-a fôte-m, -on fåt	Sing. nêd nêde nêde nêde	Plur.  nêda nêd-a nêdi-m (-em, -um, -on) nêda

#### Old Norse.

Themes:—bragi-, carmen; belgji-, follis; dsti-, amor; min-, mouse.

Masculine.					Frm	ININE.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. brag-r braga-r brag brag	Plur. bragi-r brag-a brögu-m bragi	Sing. belg-r belgja-r belg belg	Plur. belgi-r belgj-a belgju-m belgi	Sing. åst åsta-r åst(u) åst	Plur. åsti-r åst-a åstu-m åsti	Sing. mds mdsa-r mds(u) mds	Plur. mát mát s mát s mát s - m mát

## Examples and Remarks to Themes in L.

#### Gothic.

1. The following words belong to the declension in i.

MASC. áivs, aevum; arms, arm; baúrs, genitus; gadraúkt, soldier; faþs, dux; gards, house; gasts, stranger, guest (Germ. gast); láuþs, homo; mats, meat; saggvs, song; stads, place (cf. stead); végs, wave (Germ. woge).

FEM. alds, age; ansts, favour; déds, deed; makts, might; quéns, queins, woman, wife; vaihts, thing (cf. Engl. wight, Germ. wicht); vairts, root, wort; gabaurhs, birth (Germ. geburt); gamáinhs, ἐκκλησία, congregation (Germ. gemeinde).

- 2. Words which in their simple stem end in s or r reject, like those of the first declension, the case-sign of the nom. sing.; hence of the theme baúri the nom. is baúr; of garunsai (fem.) the nom. is garuns. The theme vaúrtsai preserves its s in the singular and drops it in the plural, e.g. gen. sing. vaúrtsais, nom. plur. vaúrteis.
- 3. The theme navi (mortuus) vocalizes the v before the case-sign -s of the nom. sing. nau-s, and in its terminational position in the accus. and voc. sing. nau.
- 4. Feminine nouns derived from verbs, and formed with the derivative suffix -ein, substitute in the plural the theme -einó for the theme -einai: e.g. the theme laiseinai, doctrine, from the verb laisjan, to teach, has the sing. nom. laiseins, gen. laiseinais, &c.; plur. nom. laiseinós, gen, laiseinó, dat. -einóm, accus. -einós. But the dative and accusative occasionally occur also in -einim, -einins. In a similar manner the theme haimai, vicus (cf. home), in the plural adopts forms in a, as haimós, haimó, &c.

### Old High German.

1. The following words belong to the declension in i.

Masc. Sing. arn, plur. ernî, eagle (Germ. aar); ast, estî, ramus; thas, chasî, cheese; halm, helmi, reed, stalk (Germ. halm); heit, teitî, person; cast, kesti, guest; lid, lidî, limb (Germ. glied); palc, pelki, skin; scilt, sciltî, shield; sun, suni, son; tisk, tiskî, table (Germ. tisch); vuoz, vuozî, foot (Germ. fuß); zand, zendî, tooth; zahar, zaharî, tear (Germ. zähre); vuhs, vuhsî, fox; luft, luftî, air (Germ. luft); scaft, sceftî, shaft, spear; sunft, sunftî, pool (Germ. sumpf).

FEM. ankunst, anxiety (Germ. angst); anst, favour; arapeit, labour (Germ. arbeit); arm, harvest (Germ. ernte); chraft, strength (Germ. kraft, cf. Engl. craft); chuo, chuoi, cow; diu, diwi, serva; eih, oak (Germ. eiche); hant, hand; hūt, skin (Germ. haut); kans, goose (Germ. gans); keiz, goat (Germ. geiß); kift, gift; last, burden (Germ. last); lust, desire (Germ. lust); makad, maid; naht, night (Germ. nacht); nôt, need; prust, breast; prūt, bride (Germ. braut).

- 2. Before the termination  $\delta$  of the genitive plural the j which stands for the thematic vowel i is often weakened into e, or dropped altogether, as  $pelkj-\delta$ , or  $pelk\ddot{e}-o$ , or  $pelk-\delta$ ;  $enstj-\delta$ ,  $enst\ddot{e}-\delta$ , or  $enst-\delta$ .
- 3. The feminine nouns, and partly the masculine too, of the Gothic declension in **u** have in Old High German adopted the declension in **i**, such as hant, vuoz, sun, &c. A trace of an ancient Old High German declension in **u** is left in the dat. plur. hantu-m, and in its weakened form hanto-n.

#### Old Saxon.

1. The following words belong to the declension in i.

Masc. liudí, homines (Germ. leute); főt, foot; segg, vir; scild, shield; gast, guest; plur. trahnî, gender? lacrymæ (Germ. thräne).

FEM. bank, benki, bench; buok, book; burg, arx (Germ. burg, cf. borough); brud, bride, wife; dad, deed; fard, journey (Germ. farth); hand, hand; anst, favour; idis, woman; maht, might; nod, need; juguo, youth; craft, power; list, knowledge; magad, maid; wërold, world; wiht, thing; wurt, root, wort.

2. In the dative plural the termination -jan of the first declension (a) has found its way into the second declension (i) as well,

and expelled the legitimate termination -in, the only trace of which is left in the dat. plur. trahnin, by the side of trakejus, trahnun, thence trahni, tear (Germ. thräne).

- 3. Some feminine nouns have a genitive in -es by the side of -i, as theme wëroldi-, world, nom. wërold, gen. weroldes and weroldi; theme custi-, choice, nom. cust, gen. custes and custi. This -es may be considered the weakened form of the ancient -i-, which in Gothic we find lengthened into -áis, as anstáis, gen. of ansts.
- 4. The feminine nouns of the declension in u have adopted the declension in i: a trace of the former we find, as in Old High German, in the dat. plur handun, handon, manibus, by the side of nom. accus. handi, hendi.

## Anglo-Saxon.

1. The following words belong to the declension in i.

Masc. In the singular the word byre (son) only; in the plural lebde, homines; the national appellatives Dene, Danes; Engle, Angles; and compounds of -vare, incolæ, as burh-vare, cives; cant-vare, cantium habitantes, inhabitants of Kent: but even these may have the plur. in -as (a) by the side of -e (i), as byrds and byre, varás and vare;—fot, fêt, foot, feet; too, teo, tooth,

teeth, turf, tyrf, turf.

Fem. ár, honour (Germ. ehre); ben, wound; ben, prayer; bend, band; blis, joy; breost, breast; brfd, bride; dæd, deed; dún, hill (cf. downs); ecg, edge; heal, hall; hen, hen; lár, doctrine (Germ. lehre); mäg, maid; mearc, mark; méd, meed; miht, might; niht, night; ród, cross, rood; spræc, speech (Germ. sprache); stræt, street; syn, sin; túd, time (cf. tide); womb, womb; woruld, world; wund, wound; wyn, joy; yo, wave; byrden, burden, burthen; ellen, strength; gyden, goddess; stefen, voice; cëaster, arx, castra; ides, woman; mëoloc, milk; dugud, virtue (Germ. tugend); yrmd, poverty (Germ. armuth);—bôc, bêc, book; brôc, bréc, bracca; gôs, gês, goose, geese; cû, cq, cow, kine; lús, lýs, louse, lice; műs, mýs, mouse, mice; burh, byrig, arx, borough.

- 2. As we see under No. 1, the masculine nouns in i very frequently pass into the declension in a.
- 3. Fôt, tôo, &c., have in Anglo-Saxon, as in other dialects, migrated from the third declension (u) into the second (i).

4. On the whole the declension in i is in Anglo-Saxon much mutilated, and appears in mere fragments, either as the termination e, the weakened form of the ancient thematic i, or in the Umlaut which was caused by an ancient terminational i, and which continued to exist after the final vowel had been dropped. But in both instances the forms in a have much encroached upon those in i, especially in the plural.

#### Old Frisian.

- 1. In Old Frisian, as in Anglo-Saxon, we find but few remnants of the declension in i. These remnants may either be the thematic i weakened into e, or the Umlaut, which continued to exist after its cause, the final i, had been removed. To the former class belong but two substantives, liode (homines), and rumere (romipeta); to the second, fot (foot) and toth (tooth), which, as in the other dialects, originally belonged to the third declension (u), Goth. fotu-s, tunpu-s. The forms of the first declension (a) have here again much encroached upon those of the second (i); but still Old Frisian is so far superior to Anglo-Saxon, as in the dative plural of the feminine we find occasionally the original vowel i instead of the ususper a or its weakened form u.
- 2. The -e of the oblique cases is gradually admitted into the nominative too, so that there exists no longer a distinction between the nom. sing. déde (for déd) and the dat. sing. déde.
- 3. The feminine nouns  $b\delta k$  (book),  $k\ell$  (cow), have not, as in Anglo-Saxon, the Umlaut.

#### Old Norse.

- 1. The following words belong to the declension in i.
- Masc. (1) Words interpolating j in the genitive singular, and genitive and dative plural:—beckr, scamnum; belgr, follis; bylr, turbo; drengr, vir; dryckr, drink; her, army; hryggr, back (Germ. rücken); hyr, fire; laekr, rivus; leggr, crus; reykr, reek, smoke; seggr, vir; seckr, sack; verkr, grief; boer, town; bedr, bed. (2) Words which do not interpolate the j:—bolr, trunk; bragr, poem, song; bur, son; dalr, dale; gestr, guest; gramr, hero; hamr, skin; hagr, condition; hlutr, thing; hugr, mind; hvalr, whale; lydr, nation; mar, horse; matr, meat; réfr, fox; rettr, right; salr, hall (Germ. saal); stadr, place, stead; stafr, staff; vegr, way; vinr, friend.

- FEM. ást, favour, love; braut, way; dáð, deed, ill-deed; drú, maid; ferð, journey (Germ. farth); grund, ground; hiálp, help; ið, business; krás, meat; leið, way; nauð, need; sól, sun; tið, time (cf. tide); súl, pillar (Germ. säule); und, wound; unn, wave; váð, dress; auðn, desertum; eign, property; höfn, haven; dygð, virtue (Germ. tugend); aett, genus; ambótt, ancilla; vætt, weight; gás, goose; mís, mouse; lús, louse; brún, brow.
- 2. We have just enumerated certain masculine nouns which interpolate the semi-vowel j throughout all cases. Though this letter does not come to appearance except in the genitive singular, and the genitive and dative plural, its presence at a more ancient stage of the language is certified by the Umlaut which runs throughout all cases in the mentioned words. other hand it is curious to observe that the masculine nouns enumerated under No. (2), and which do not interpolate the semivowel j, never have an Umlaut caused by the final i, not even in the nominative and accusative plural, where i is the thematic vowel. In the same manner most feminine nouns reject the Umlaut, except gás, mús, lús, brún, which have the plural gés, mys, lys, bryn, and the plur. neut. dyr, valvae, gen. dura, &c. an Umlaut which was effected by the plural terminations nom. ir, accus. i, and which continued to exist after these terminations had been dropped.
- 3. There are a few words which have the Umlaut though they reject the interpolation of j, as gestr, guest; brestr, defect;  $ly\delta r$ , nation, &c., where the Umlaut is of course considered inorganic.
  - 4. The nominatives bur, mar, byr, &c., stand for burr, marr, &c.
- 5. The feminine nouns brids, bride; hildr, war; and the proper nouns  $B\ddot{o}\delta rildr$ , Borgrildr, retain the case-sign -r of the nominative singular, and have commonly the termination i in the dative and accusative singular.

## THEMES IN U

## Gothic.

Themes: — sunu-, son; handau-, hand; faihu-, cattle (Germ. vieh; comp. Engl. fee).

	MASCULINE.		PEMINTE.		NECTER.	
Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. sunu-e sunau-e sunau sunu sunu	SWMC-M	Sing.  kandu-s  kandau-s  kandau  kandau	kandu-m	faikau faiku	Plur.

## Old High German.

Themes: -- sunu , son ; fiku-, cattle.

Masculine.			NEUTER.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr.	Sing. sunu (-0) sunc-e sunju (-u) sunu (-0) sunj-u (-u)	Plur. suni sunj-6 suni-m (-um) suni (-u)	Sing. fiku (-0) fike-s fikju fiku (-0)	Plur.  fikju (-u, -o)  fikj-ō (-ō)  fiki-m  fikju (-u, -o)	

## Old Saxon.

Themes:—sunu-, son; fehu-. pecus.

	Masculin	NEUTER.		
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plar.
	sunu (-0) sunu (-0), sunje-s	suni, sunjôs sunj-ó, -eô	fehu (-0) fehu-s (-cs)	wanting.
Dat. Accus. Instr.	sunu (-0)	sunju-n (-un) suni, sunjós		

## Anglo-Sexon.

Theme: -- sunu-, son.

	MASCULINE.					
	Sing.	1	Plur.			
Nom.	FERM		MAG			
Gen.	FYR-G		Jun-G			
Det.	FER-G		Sunn-m			
Acces	FURU	1	runa			
Instr.	*sun-é?	•	• .			

### Old Frisian.

Themes: --- sunu-, son; fiku-, pecus.

	Mascu	TLINE.	NE	UTER.
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen.	Funu (-6)	PURA-T (-a)	fia fia-s	wanting.
Det.	PURG Pur-a	Sub-G Sub-G	fia.	
Accus.	MKNS	suna-r (-a)	jia	

## Old Norse.

Themes:—sonu-, son; magu-, son; tannu-, tooth; fihu-, pecus.

	Masculine.				FEMININE.		NEUTER.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	sona-r syni	Plur. syni-r son-a sonu-m sonu	Sing.  mög-r  maya-r  meg-i  mög	Plur. megi-r mag-a mögu-m mögu	Sing. tönn tanna-r tönn-u tönn	Plur.  tenn-r tann-a tönnu-m tenn-r	Sing. fö fiå-r fë fë	Plur. wanting.

## Notes to the Declension in u.

#### Gothic.

1. The following words belong to the declension in u.

Masc. airus, messenger; dáupus, death; flódus, river (Germ. fluß, cf. flood); fótus, foot; hairus, sword; lipus, limb (Germ. glied); lustus, lust; magus, boy; sakkus, sac; skadus, shade; stubjus, dust (Germ. staub); sunus, son; tigus, decas; tunpus,

> th; vintrus, winter; vulhus, glory; haúrnus, thorn; asilus, ass; abaúlus, diabolus; praúfétus, propheta; apaústaúlus, apostolus.

FEM. handus, hand; asilus, she-ass; vaddjus, vale; kinnus, axilla; vritus, herd, flock.

NEUT. fashu, pecunia (cf. Germ. vieh and Engl. fee).

- 2. This declension has more fully than any other preserved the ancient case-signs, as well as the thematic vowel which precedes them, and which in several cases is strengthened by the gradation (guna) of u into  $\delta u$ .
- 3. It occurs in later documents that the ancient use of the gradation is abandoned and the simple thematic vowel adopted, as gen. sing. sunus, dat. and voc. sunu, for the organic forms sunúus and sunúu.
- 4. A few substantives have the derivative j before the thematic vowel, but the case-signs remain unaltered; hence stubjus, gen. stubjaus; vaddjus, gen. vaddjus.

## Old High German.

1. The following words belong to the declension in u.

Masc. haru, linum; huku, mind; siku, victory (Germ. sieg); situ, mos (Germ. sitte); sunu, son; vridu, peace (Germ. friede); perhaps also maku, boy; ëru, messenger; hëru, sword; apostolu, apostle; magu, magus, sapiens.

NEUT. vihu, pecus (Germ. vieh); witu, wood.

- 2. The declension in **u** is, in Old High German, as already observed, nearly extinct, few words only belonging to it, and most of these forming the plural almost regularly after the declension in **i**. We find a few remnants of the declension in **u** in the dative and accusative plural.
- 3. In later documents sunu appears in the nominative singular as sun, and follows the declension in a; so does likewise ruoz, foot, Goth. fotus (u).
- 4. The number of neuter nouns is limited to two, and these do not occur in all the different cases.

#### Old Saxon.

1. The following words belong to the declension in **u**.

Masc. friðu, peace (Germ. friede); hëru, sword; lagu, water; magu, boy; sidu, mos (Germ. sitte); sunu, son; wisu, princeps; ehu, horse; éru, messenger.

NEUT. fihu, pecus; widu, wood.

2. The declension has adopted not only forms in i (chiefly in the plural), but also in a, especially in the neuter singular.

## Anglo-Saxon.

The few nouns masculine which in the nom. sing. have preserved the thematic u (sometimes weakened to o) hardly occur in any other cases than the nom. and accus. sing., sunu, son, only being an exception (see the Paradigm). The dat. sing. in a is found with several other masc. nouns, namely, winter, winter; sumer, summer; feld, field; ford, ford, as well as with the femnouns hand, hand, and duru, door. The masc. wudu, wood, has the gen. and dat. sing. wudu, but also the gen. sing. wudes, nom. plur. wudds, following the declension in a.

#### Old Frisian.

We find a few remnants of this declension in the masc. suns, son, and fretho, peace, and the neut. fia, pecus. Perhaps the dative honda of the feminine hond, hand, may also be mentioned as a remnant of this declension.

### Old Norse.

1. The following nouns belong to the declension in u.

Masc. örn, eagle (Germ. aar); biörn, bear; börkr, bark; bógr, armus (Germ. bûg); fëldr, hide (Germ. fell); fiörðr, sinus, bay, gulf; friðr, peace (Germ. friede); háttr, mos; hiörtr, stag (Germ. hirsch, cf. hart); kiölr, ship (cf. keel); liðr, limb (Germ. glied); limr, limb; lögr, water; máttr, might (Germ. macht); siðr, mos (Germ. sitte); skiöldr, shield; sonr, son; riðr, wood; röllr, vale; volr, stick; röndr, wand; rörðr, warden; þráðr, thread.

FEM. önd, mind, soul; bók, book; eik, oak (Germ. eiche); geit, goat (Germ. geiß); hönd, hand; hind, cerva; kinn, maxilla; miolk, milk; nót, sagina; nyt, nut; rönd, margin (Germ. rand); rót, root; steik, caro frixa, steak (?); strönd, shore (Germ. strand); töng, tongs (Germ. zange); tönn, tooth (Germ. zahn).

NEUT. fe, fihu, pecus.

- 2. Concerning the Umlaut, which is particularly developed in this declension, we have already given the necessary explanations.
- 3. As to the influence of a final i in neutralizing the preceding Brechung ia, see p. 36.

## Old High German.

Themes:—hanan-, cock; zungan-, tongue (Germ. zunge); herra-, heart (Germ. herz); managin-, multitude.

leger, ha

Masculine, Feminine,			NEUTES.					
Dat.	hano hanin hanin	hanun hanôn-ô hanô-m	zunga zungûn zungûn	zungűn zungôn-ô zungô-m	managin managin	Plur. managin managin-o managim managin	hērzin hērzin	hersin-l hersin-l

## Old Saxon.

Themes: - hanan-, cock; tungan-, tongue; hërtan-, heart.

MASCULINE.		FEM	ININE.	NEUTER.		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. hano hanun hanun hanun	Plur. hanun hanôn-ô hanu-n hanun	Sing.  tunga  tungun  tungun  tungun	Plur. tungun tungôn-ô tungu-n tungun	Sing.  hërta hërtun hërtun hërta	Plur. hërtun hërton-6 hërtu-n hërtun

# Anglo-Saxon.

Themes: -hanan-, cock; tungan-, tongue; eágan-, eye.

MASCULINE,			FEM	ININE.	NEUTER.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing.  hana hanan hanan hanan	Plur. hanan hanen-â hanu-m hanan	Sing.  tunge tungan tungan tungan	Plur.  tungan tungen-å tungu-m tungan	Sing. eáge eágan eágan eáge	Plur. eágan eágen-a eágu-m eágan

## Old Frisian.

Themes: -honan-, cock; tungan-, tongue; agan-, eye; aran-, ear.

MASCULINE. FEMININE.			Neuter.					
Nom. Gen.	hona hona	hona honan-a (-ona) honu-m		tunga tungan-a tungu-m	àga	ågon †ågen-a ågen-um, ågu-m	âre âra	

The feminine shows here, as in Gothe,

The feminine shows here, as in Gothe,

I treating as win, in as in. With respect to

a first the word and then pre
which remains unaltered throughthe feminines in in passes sometimes into

a substituted in the nom. sing. and then

which remains unaltered through
the feminines in in passes sometimes into

a substitute of managin we have the

managin, and the strong form

s in the strate adopt forms of strong declension in a letter declensions being indeed closely

The firms nemin and seedin for limin are exceptions.

#### Cld Saxon.

the themes in -va is rarely met, its them is weakened into on and each strong declension in a frequently than its mass for instance eroa (earth),

regularly ended in -in have dropped to the contact the plural, the strong indicates they semetimes do in the plural, the strong indicate in it.

### Angie-Saxon.

Two mass alone in anser riginally terminating in the spirants and drop the terminate nal vewel, but adopt the case-sign -not the weak declession, these are the blord for fred-a, Goth, and and the doubt terms in C. S. fred-a, which have in the generation, freds. Analogous are the forms of the feminine name to too for the O. H. Germ, what, gen. thu, nom. plur. too, No., and feel bee's plur. bed.

2. As in Old High German and Old Saxon we have feminine forms in in which drop the thematic consonant and then remain maltered in all cases, so we meet in Anglo-Saxon corresponding minine nouns ending in -u, -o, later on weakened to -e, which reject inflexional forms; e. g. menigo, multitude; ädelu or theo, nobility; yldo, old age, &c. If they form a plural at all, they follow in this the strong declension.

### Old Frisian.

1. The masculine and feminine nouns have lost the thematic -m throughout; but in the neuter plural we find, on the other hand, the very ancient form dgon, nom. plur. of dge (eye), which approaches very near the Goth. augina; and in the dat. plur. dgenu-m, where, as in the Gothic valuam, &c., the thematic consonant -n has been preserved before the case-sign -m.

2. In this, as in the preceding dialects, there are feminine nouns of the weak declension which have dropped the thematic vowel and appear with the termination -e; e. g. kelde, cold; hrêne,

smell, &c., used in the sing. only.

3. Several documents still show in the nom. and accus. of the masc. and fem. the case-sign -n, which usually was dropped in the mentioned cases; e. g. fona, vexillum (Germ. fahne), accus. plur. fonan; frôwe, woman (Germ. frau), frôwan.

#### Old Norse.

1. The weak declension has in the Old Norse tongue many peculiarities which will be appeciated upon a comparison of the paradigms we have given above. The nominative singular of the masculine has generally weakened the original a to i, two words only preserving the ancient a, namely herra, herus (Germ. herr), and sira, lord.

2. The thematic -n is but rarely preserved in the plural of masculine nouns, to which exception belong gumnar, homines; bragnar, soldiers; gotnar, horses; skatnar, kings; oxnar, oxen, &c.; but these words also show the plural without n, as gumar,

bragar, &c.

÷

3. Feminine nouns terminating in -n, suppress the thematic n before the case-sign n of the genitive plural, as kona, wife, gen. plur. kona, instead of kon-n-a. The same process takes place in feminine themes ending in -jan, unless this termination is preceded by a guttural; hence lilja, lily, gen. plur. lilja (the

#### Old Frisian.

Masc. boda, messenger (Germ. bote); frána, judge; gréva, earl (Germ. graf); hona, cock (Germ. hahn); hëra, lord (Germ. herr); knapa, servus (cf. Germ. knabe and knappe); maga, stomach (Germ. magen); mutha, mouth, i.e. of a river; nëva, nepos; noma, name; omma, spiritus; thúma, thumb; willa, will; menniska, homo (Germ. mensch).

FEM. forne, woman; hërte, heart; lunge, lungs; sunne, sun; swarde, skin; tane, toe; tunge, tongue.

Neut. age, eye; are, ear.

### Old Norse.

Masc. andi, animus; api, ape; ari, eagle; arfi, heir; bani, murderer; bogi, bow; dauði, death; dropi, drop; gumi, homo; hani, cock; máni, moon; nëfi, brother; skati, king; skuggi, shade; uxi, ox; þánki, mens; vili=vilji, will; tiggi, king.

FEM. aska, ashes; bára, wave; ēgda, eagle, fem.; dúfa, dove; gánga, iter; harpa, lyra; pípa, pipe; saga, tale; staka, verse; tala, speech (cf. tale); túnga, tongue; vika, week; bylgja, billow; dryckja, drink; gyðja, goddess; kirkja, church; manneskja, homo (Germ. mensch).

NEUT. auga, eye (Germ. auge); eyra, ear; hiarta, heart; lúnga, lungs.

#### OTHER CONSONANTAL THEMES.

THEME: PRIMITIVE -tara, -tar.

### Gothic.

The primitive suffix -tar, -tara, was employed to form nouns expressive of family connections. On the whole the nouns are the same in all the cognate languages with regard to the suffix as well as the respective root of which they are formed. (Concerning the origin and derivation of these words, see the chapter on Roots and Themes under the respective suffixes.) To these themes in -r belong in Gothic the words fadar, father; brópar, brother; daúhtar, daughter; svistar, sister. Where a case-sign is added to these words they drop the vowel of the suffix -tar (par or dar), so that brópar, for example, has in the sing. nom. accus. and voc. brópar, and in the gen. brópr-s, dat. brópr; plur.

nom. and voc. bropr-ju-s, gen. bropr-e, dat. bropr-u-m, accus. bropr-u-ns. The plural evidently follows the strong declension in u.

### Old High German.

The masc. nouns. in -r either have in the singular no inflexions at all, or they take those of the strong declension in a; but their accus. is formed in -an, as fatar (pater), fatar-an (patrem), pruodar (frater), pruodar-an (fratrem). The fem. nouns muotar (mother), swester (sister), tohtar (daughter), have in the sing. no inflexions, and muotar and swestar remain unchanged in the nom. and accus. plur. as well, but the latter by the side of the uninflected form swester, also shows swestera in the nom. and accus. plur. The plural of tohtar is declined both strong and weak, as nom. tohtera or tohteran, gen. tohtera or tohteran, dat. tohterum or tohteran, accus. tohtera or tohteran.

#### Old Saxon.

The words fadar (father), brôðar (brother), módar (mother), dohtar (daughter), suëstar (sister), are undeclined in the singular, and in the nom. and accus. plur. There occurs of brôðar the dat. plur. brôðrun; of other cases we have no examples; the genitive might be fadaró or fadró, &c.

#### Anglo-Saxon.

fäder (father) is in the singular uninflected; the genitive fäderes is of rare occurrence. In the plural it has adopted the terminations of the strong declension in a, hence nom. accus. fäderås, gen. fäderå, dat. fäderum. The word brödor (brother) has in the dat. sing. the Umlaut; and in the nom. plur. the theme is, as in Gothic, enlarged into brödor. It is in the sing., nom., gen., accus. brödor, dat. brödor; plur. nom. and accus. brödor or brödor, gen. bródrå, dat. brödorum. In the same manner are declined mödor (mother), dohtor (daughter), sveoster (sister).

#### Old Frisian.

The masculine themes in -r, feder (father), brother (brother), are either undeclined in the singular, or they take -s in the gen. and -e in the dat. as feder-s, brother-s; feder-e, brother-e; the plural has the nom. federa, gen. feder-a, dat. federu-m, accus. federa; nom. brothera, &c. The feminine nouns moder (mother),

swester (sister), and dockter (daughter), are declined in the same manner, but in the gen. sing. they may also take the termination -e; hence the gen. sing. of moder for instance may be moder, or moders, or modere.

#### Old Norse.

fadir (father), brodir (brother), modir (mother), dottir (daughter), systir (sister), take in all cases of the sing. ur; hence gen. fodur, brodur, &c. (exceptionally fedr.) In the plural the nom. and accus. are fedr, broedr, gen. fedra, broedra, dat. fedrum, broedram. The i in the termination ir of the nom. sing. does not cause Umlaut, because it stands inorganic for a more ancient ar; while, on the other hand, the Umlaut of the plural is caused by the i of the termination ir which has been dropped, so that fedr stands for fedir(=fadir), and the gen. may have been fedira, dat. fedirum, wherefore we see the Umlaut e of a, caused by i, preserved in the gen. and dat. plur. instead of the forms fadra, fodrum, which we should expect in accordance with the vowels and a of the terminations.

## THEMES IN -nd.

#### Gothic.

The themes in -nd comprise present participles declined as substantives. In the gen. sing. and dat. plur. they adopt the forms of the strong declension in a. The word nasjands (saviour), for example, has in the singular, gen. nasjandi-s, dat. accus. voc. nasjand; in the plural, nom. accus. voc. nasjand-s, gen. nasjand-é, dat. nasjanda-m. In the same manner goes ménőp (month), but dat. plur. ménőpu-m.

## Old High German.

The themes in -nt, as friunt (friend), may follow the strong declension in a by the side of the following forms which are more common: sing. nom. dat. accus. friunt, gen. friunte-s; plur. nom. accus. friunt, gen. friunt-6, dat. friuntu-m. In the same manner mánód, month.

#### Old Saxon.

The participial themes in -nd, as friund (friend), may in the oblique cases adopt the forms of the strong declension in a. The

common declension is sing. nom. accus. friund, gen. friundes, dat. friunde; plur. nom. accus. friund, gen. friundes, dat. friundun. In Old Saxon however this declension is limited to certain words, as friund, friend; fibnd, enemy (cf. fiend); lérjand, teacher; héljand, saviour, and a few others.

## Anglo-Saxon.

Among participial themes in -nd, freond (friend) and feond (enemy, fiend), have adopted the strong declension in a, hence plur. freondas, feondas; but by the side of these we also find the plurals freond, feond, or, with Umlaut, frend, find. Other themes of this kind either have the nom. plur. like the nom. sing., or they form the nom. plur. after the strong declension in a.

#### Old Frisian.

Participial themes in -nd: friund, friend; nom accus. sing. friund, gen. friunde-s, dat. friund or friunde; plur. nom. accus. friund, gen. friund-a or friunda-n-e, dat. friund-um. In the same manner is declined fiand, enemy; also the masc. monath, month, which later on however has the strong plural monatha-r as well; wigand (miles, filius) and werand (autor) are doubtful.

### Old Norse.

The participial themes in -nd have in the singular adopted the weak declension; the plural in -r has the Umlaut, so that the plural sign -r appears to have its origin in the suffix -ir. Examples: — frændi, friend, gen. dat. accus. frænda; plur. nom. accus. frænd-r, gen. frænd-a, dat. frændu-m. In the same manner are declined fiandi, enemy; bondi, ruricola, plur. boend-r.

## THEMES ENDING IN A GUTTURAL OR DENTAL.

### Gothic.

Theme bairg, borough, nom. gen. bairg-s; dat. accus. voc. bairg; plur. nom. accus. voc. bairg-s, gen. bairg-e, dat. bairgi-m. In the same manner are declined nahts, night, with the dat. plur. nahta-m; miluks, milk; vaihts, thing; brusts, breast; dulps, feast: dulp and vaiht also follow the strong declension in i from the themes dulpai, vaihtai.

## Old High German.

In this dialect the mentioned themes have adopted the strong declension in i, such as prust, breast (dat. plur. has also prustum); purc, borough; miluk, milk; naht, night. The last-mentioned has, however, preserved some traces of the ancient declension: sing. nom. accus. naht, gen. nahte-s, dat. nahte; plur. nom. accus. naht, gen. naht-6, dat. nahtu-m, nahto-n.

#### Old Saxon.

Most of the themes have passed into the strong declension in i; naht, night, has preserved more of the ancient forms: sing. nom. dat. accus. naht (dat. once nahta), gen. nahte-s; plur. nom. accus. naht, gen. naht-6, dat. nahtu-n; burg, borough, which follows the declension in i has the exceptional gen. burge-s, and rarely the dat. burg for burgi; magað, maid, dat. accus. sing. and accus. plur. magað.

## Anglo-Saxon.

Some traces of the ancient declension of these themes we find in the words niht, night; viht, vuht, thing; plur. nom. niht, viht, vuht; burh, castle, borough, which follows the declension in i, has the gen. sing. byrg, byrig, by the side of burge.

#### Old Frisian.

naht, night: sing. nom. accus. naht, dat. naht and nahte, gen. nahte-s; plur. nom. and accus. naht and nahta, gen. naht-a, dat. nahtu-m. burch, castle, dat. sing. burch, nom. plur. burga.

## Old Norse.

nátt for naht, night: nom. dat. acc. nátt, gen. nátta-r; plur. nom. accus. naet-r, gen. nátta, dat. náttum. nótt, for nátt, has the gen. noet-r, dat. accus. nótt; plur. noet-r, gen. nótt-a, dat. nóttum.

#### ANOMALOUS DECLENSIONS.

#### Gothic.

1. The consonantal theme, man (homo) is in some forms enlarged into mannan-, and then follows the weak declension; hence sing. nom. manna, gen. man-s, dat. mann, accus. mannan, voc. manna; plur. nom. man-s, mannan-s, gen. mannan-é, dat. manna-m, accus. man-s, mannan-s, voc. man-s, mannan-s.

2. fadrein (status parentis) is, strictly speaking, a neuter noun, but in the nom. and accus. plur. it is used as a masculine, pai fadrein, pans fadrein (parentes), otherwise regular. When used as a feminine theme in i, as gen. sing. fadreinais, it means family.'

3. Jon (fire) an indeclinable neuter, substitutes in the gen. and dat. sing. the masculine theme funan, without the plural.

## Old High German.

man, homo, forms its cases in the singular in a twofold manner, namely, either man throughout, or nom. man, gen. mannis, dat. manne, accus. mannan; plur. nom. man, gen. mannó, dat. mannum, accus. man.

### Old Saxon.

- 1. man, in a similar manner as in Old High German, has the singular indeclinable, or nom. man, gen. manna-s, -es, dat. manna, -e, accus. man; plur, nom. man, gen. mann-ó, dat. mannu-n, accus. man.
- 2. The feminine strong theme helljó, infernus, nom. hellja, is sometimes supplanted by a masc. theme hella, nom. hell or hel. thiodó (gens) is often superseded by the fem. theme thiodi, nom. thiod.

#### Anglo-Saxon.

1. man, gen. mannes, dat. men, accus. man; plur. nom. men, gen. manna, dat. mannum, accus. men.

2. The feminines  $s\alpha$  (sea),  $\alpha$  (law),  $e\acute{a}$  (river), are in the singular indeclinable; but occasionally there occur the genitives  $s\alpha$ -s, Goth. saivi-s;  $e\acute{a}$ -s, Goth.  $ahv\acute{o}$ -s; the nom. plur. also is  $s\alpha$ -s,  $e\acute{a}$ -s; dat. plur.  $s\alpha$ -m,  $e\acute{a}$ -m.

3. dry, magus, has the nom. plur. dryds, but the gen. dry-r-d.

### Old Frisian.

mon (vir), gen. monnes, dat. mon, monne, accus. mon; plur. nom. mon, gen. monna, dat. monnum, accus. mon.

#### Old Norse.

1. mað-r (homo), gen. mann-s, dat. mann-i, accus. mann; plur. nom. menn (also með-r), gen. mann-a, dat. mönnu-m, accus. men. Both forms mað-r and mann, according to Old Norse phonetic

laws, spring from a more ancient manor (see p. 108).

2. Corresponding to the Goth. sáiv-s, A. S. sæ, sea, lake, the Old Norse has in the singular a variety of forms, as nom. sæ-, gen. sævar, dat. sæ, accus. sæ; or sior, sios, sio, sio; or siar, sioar (siofar, siavar), sia, sia; plur. sævar, sæva, sæm (siam), sæva. In the same manner, corresponding to the Goth. snáiv-s, snow, the O. N. snær, snior, sniar.

3. fingr, fingur (finger), gen. fingr-s, follows the declension in a, but in the nom. accus. plur. it has fingr for fingrar, fingra; in the same manner vetr, vetur (declension in u), has in the nom.

accus. plur. vetr for vetrir, vetru.

4. fôtr (foot), follows the declension in u; gen. fotar (or fots,

a), dat. foeti (or fôti, a); nom. plur. foetr for foetir.

5. Monosyllabic words ending in a vowel, which in other dialects follow the declensions in a or u, never have a thematic vowel in Old Norse; hence they are declined, e.g., masc. ná-r (corpse), gen. ná-s, dat. ná, accus. ná; plur. nd-r, gen. ná-u, dat. nd-m, accus. nd. Fem. spd (vaticinium), gen. spd-r, dat. spd, accus.  $sp\vec{a}$ ; plur. nom.  $sp\vec{a}-r$ , gen.  $sp\vec{a}-a$ , dat.  $sp\vec{a}-m$ , accus.  $sp\vec{a}-r$ . To this declension belong masc. \( \varphi - r \) (arcus),  $sk\delta - r \$  (shoe),  $io - r \$  (horse); fem.  $\hat{a}$  (river),  $br\hat{a}$  (brow). mey (maid), ey (island),  $b\mathcal{J}$  (serva), have j before the thematic vowel by which the latter is preserved; hence the gen. meyjar, eyjar, &c., plur. nom. the same; plur. dat. meyjum, eyjum; neut. (which decline like masc. except nom. plur.) bû (rus, country), dat. sing. bûi, dat. plur. bûum; knê (knee), tré (tree), dat. plur. knia-m, tria-m; vé (temple), gen. plur.  $v\hat{e}$ -a, dat.  $v\hat{e}u$ -m. Forms in analogy to the declension in  $\mathbf{u}$  we have in  $t\hat{a}$  (toe), gen.  $t\hat{a}$ -r, plur. nom.  $t\alpha$ -r, gen.  $t\hat{a}$ -a. Words with  $\vec{u}$  have the vowel a before the case-sign; e.g. bril (bridge), gen. brûar. The secondary form  $k\hat{y}$ -r for  $k\hat{u}$  (cow) has the casesign -r of the nom. sing. preserved; compare a-r (sheep), ma-r (maid).

## DECLENSION OF PROPER NAMES.

## Gothic.

Gothic proper names no examples occur in Ulfilas; foreign be uses either undeclined, or with their Greek inflexions, or adapted to one of the Gothic declensions. A few proper s, as Asleisabasp, Magdaléné, Béplahasm, are indeclinable. have Greek inflexions in the nom. Annas, accus. Teitaum, gen. ias, nom. plur. Israélitai. More frequently we find them w the Gothic declensions, so that all Greek proper names ng in a consonant (except those in os and as) are declined the Gothic in a, as Adam, gen. Adamis, dat. Adama. After Gothic in i go the names of nations, of which we have efly the plural nom. in eis, as Rumoneis, Makidoneis. After in u the proper names ending in -ius, -us, -aius, the last having in the nom. gen. plur. always -eis, -e, the first menoned remaining unaltered in the nom. plur. All the masculine names in -a, -6, -6n, and -as, and the feminines in -a, follow the reak declension, as Marja, gen. Marjins; Iaireiko, Iaireikons; Akarón, Akaróns,

### Old High German.

Proper names, whether native or foreign, follow the strong declension in a, commonly forming the accus. sing. in -an, as Hludwig, accus. Hludwigan and Hludwig; Swap, Suevus, accus. Swapan, plur. Swapá, Swapó, Swapum. The strong declension in i we find in Hún, plur. Húní; but no examples of the declension in u. After the weak declension go the names Brúno, Kéro; Franko, Sakso, Saxon. Feminine proper names follow the strong declension in a, as Hiltirúna, Róma, or the declension in i (especially those ending in -lind, -rút, -gund, -trút), or the weak declension, as Marjá, gen. Marjún. The strong neutral declension is used in some names of cities, as in Betlehem, Sión, gen. Betlémes, Siónes.

#### Old Saxon.

Masculine names follow the strong declension in a. In this dialect there appears, as in Old High German, the ancient accusative termination -an, as Lazarus, accus. Lazarusan and Lazarus. The feminine names Ruma, Bethania, Galilea, follow the strong declension in a Maria the weak declension. The masc. Judeo

is weak. Some masculine nouns decline strong or weak according to different stages of the language and different documents. Some are indeclinable.

## Anglo-Saxon.

All masculine names which decline strong follow the declension in a; so do the words Swaf, Finn, Pyring, plur. Swafas, &c. Feminine names in a occur very rarely. After the declension in i go the words Dene, Engle, and those ending in -vare (as already mentioned); to these may be added Gréce (Greek), Surpe (Sorbi), and a few others. Many names, especially feminine, follow the weak declension, as Marie, gen. Marian, Eve, gen. Evan; the names of nations, Searan, Saxons; Frisans, &c.: Judéas, Jews, is strong. Foreign proper nouns often appear with their respective foreign declensions.

#### Old Frisian.

The native names follow the strong declension; foreign ones may have the strong Frisian, or their own foreign declension, as Peder, Pederes, or Petrus, Petri; or some are indeclinable, as Leo, the pope. Of names of nations some decline strong, others weak: Riostring, plur. Riostringa, is strong; Fresa, Frisian, Saxa, Saxon, &c., are weak. Names of towns, such as Breme, Colene, Rume, which are feminine, may decline strong in a, or weak. Marie is, as in the other dialects, weak; Eca is indeclinable.

### Old Norse.

Some of the masculine proper nouns follow the strong, others the weak declension; the former commonly have the thematic -a, as Gunnar, gen. Gunnars, dat. Gunnari; Askr, Alfr, &c. Such as Gripir, Brimir, &c., follow the declension of hirdir, that is, the themes in -ja. The declension in **u** is frequently followed by proper names, especially those ending in -mundr, -undr, hiörtr, -biörn, -vindr, -viðr; as Saemundr, Fölundr, Arn-biörn, &c. Some decline weak, as Bragi, Loki. Feminine nouns which decline strong may be attributed either to the declension in a or i, because both are identical in the singular. The words Edda, Nanna, &c., are weak. Names of nations, such as Alfr, Finnr, Sváfr, and those in -úngr, follow the declension in a; Danr, plur. Danir, Grikr, plur. Grikir, the declension in i; Saxi, Gôti, Judi, decline weak. As has in the sing gen. As-s, plur. Assir, gen. Asa, dat. Asum, accus. Asu, thus showing forms in a and u mixed. Names of towns (which are no compounds of borg or stabr) ending in a consonant, follow the declension in a or i, as Paris, gen. Parisar; those ending in the vowel -a have the weak declension, as Troja, gen. Troju.

## DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives in the Teutonic languages show a greater flexibility than those of the cognate tongues, such as Greek and Latin; for not only do they display special inflexional forms for the three different genders, but they follow moreover two distinct declensions, commonly known as the strong and weak declension. The former is produced by a demonstrative pronoun which is suffixed to the adjective root, and which by its various inflexional forms yields the case-signs to the declension of the adjective; the latter assumes the case-signs of the weak declension of the noun, and consequently stands on a parallel with the adjective declensions in the cognate languages. The former might be more properly called the pronominal, the latter the nominal, declension of adjectives. In the strong, or pronominal, declension the adjective adopts a form which is analogous to a suffixed article; this declension therefore is chiefly used where the adjective is not preceded by the article or a pronoun supplying it.

#### STRONG DECLENSION.

The thematic vowels a, i, u, which yielded us three strong declensions of the noun, are not all adopted by the adjectives; themes in a are most frequent, themes in a still appear distinctly in the Gothic, but in the other Teutonic dialects merely in a few remnants; themes in a we find in Gothic only, while such in a do not appear in any of the Teutonic languages.

The terminations or case-signs of the strong declension are, as we have already stated, derived from the different inflexional forms of a demonstrative pronoun. This pronoun occurs in Sanskrit as a relative under the forms yas, ya, yad, while in the Germanic tongues, where it assumed a demonstrative force, its most ancient forms will appear from the following table.

	Sex	GULAR.	Plural.			
	Masc.	Pem.	Nout.	Masc.	Fee.	Nest.
Nom.	jie	ja	jata	ješ	jës	ja
Gen.	iše	jaizše	iis	iedoš	jejas	teles
Dat.	jamma	jizai	jamma	jains	jaim	jein
Accus.	jana	je	jata	ians	jās	

These pronominal forms however, when suffixed to the adjutive, do not always appear in their full integrity, but are in the different dialects more or less modified. The following paradignamay suffice to convey an idea of these modifications.

THEME IN U.
Gothic.

		PLURAL.				
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Nest
Nom. Gen.	hardu-s (hard) hard-jis	hard-jaizõe	kardu, kard-jata kard-jis	hard-jaizê	hard-jaist	hard juic
Dat.	hard-jamma &c.	kard-jai &c.	kard-jamma &c.	kard-jaim &c.	kard-jaim	hard jobs &c.

All the remaining cases are formed regularly by the suffixed pronoun as it appears in the paradigm above.

THEMES IN 8.

	Sn	NGULAR.	PLURAL.			
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	blind-s blind-is blind-amma blind-ana		blind-is blind-amma		blind-aim	

## Old High German.

	81	NGULAR.	PLURAL.			
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus. Instr.	Masc. plint-êr plint-es plint-emu plint-an plint-u	Fem. plint-ju, u plint-êrâ plint-êru plint-a	Neut. plint-az plint-es plint-emu plint-az plint-u	Masc.  plint-ê, -â  plint-êro  plint-êm  plint-ê	Fem.  plint-ô  plint-êrô  pl:nt-êm  plint-ô	Neut. plint-ju, -u plint-ôrô plint-ém plint-ju, -u

# Old Saxon.

Singular.			PLUBAL.				
c.	Fem.	Neut.	Neut. Masc.		Neut.		
	blind blind-aro		blind-arô	blind-art			
RM	ouna-aro	OURG-UNE	blind-un	Orang-un	blind-en		
i, -ana	blind-a	blind	blind-a, -e	blind-a, -e	Mind-a, -s.bind.		
	٠.			i ••	••		

## Anglo-Saxon.

SINGULAR.			PLUBAL.			
ISC.	Pem.	Neut.	Masc.	Pess.	Nest.	
d	blind(u)	blind	blind-e	stind e	itals	
d-es	blind-re	blind-es	blind-re	lindra	in sense	
d-um	blind-re	blind-um	blind um	lind we	Second and	
ud-ne	blind-e	blind	blind-e	biind e	والمستقة	
nd-ê		blind-1				

## Old Frisian.

Singu	Parties.		
Masc.  Masc.  Masc.  Masc.  Mindes  Mi	Fem. blind-e blind-ere, -re blind-ere, -re blind-ere, -re	Nest. Used Used-11 Used-12 Used-12 Used-13	Har. Fan. Son. binds of binds of binds of binds of

## Old Morse.

Sing	ULAR.	-2/	PLUMAL		
Sen. lang-r	long lang-rar	lang-t	Mase, lang-ir lang-ra long-am	Fen. lang-or lang-on ling-on lang-or	Near. Sing-or Sing-or Sing-or Sing

## Remarks on the above Paradigms.

#### Gothic.

1. Adjectives preserve the thematic vowel u in the nom. sing of the three genders; in the oblique cases however they drop this thematic vowel and suffix the pronoun jis in its full integrity, as hardu-s, hard-jis, &c.

2. Themes ending in a drop the thematic vowel as well as the j of the suffix jis throughout all cases, as blind-s, blind-is, &c.

- 3. Adjectives with the theme in ja display four different modes of the nom. sing. masc.; namely, (1) If the thematic ja is preceded by a vowel or a short syllable ending in a single consonant, the nom. has the termination jis=ja-s, the a being weakened to i, e.g. sak-ji-s, rixosus; mid-ji-s, medius; fullatō-ji-s, perfect; niu-ji-s, new. Where the thematic termination ja is preceded by a long syllable ending in a consonant, three different modes of formation occur, namely, (2) ja is contracted into ei, e.g. vilb-ei-s, verus; alb-ei-s, old; or (3) ja is contracted into i, e. g. súl-i-s (ἄνεκτος), airkn-i-s (ὅσιος); or (4) ja is dropped altogether, e. g. blaip-s, mitis; hrain-s, clean, pure (Germ. rein). But under all circumstances the j of ja re-appears in the oblique cases, except with the adjectives in ei-s which preserve this contracted form in the gen. sing. masc. and fem., as the following examples will suffice to show: (1) sakjis, gen. sakjis, dat. sakjamma, &c.; (2) vilpeis, gen. vilpeis, dat. vilpjamma, &c.; (3) sútis, gen. sútjis, dat. sútjamma, &c.; (4) hrains, gen. hrainjis, dat. hrainjamma, &c.
- 4. Themes in ja which suppress this thematic termination in the nom. sing. masc, form sometimes the feminine in the same manner, as masc. fem. brûk-s, useful; skeir-s, clear; sél-s, benign; the neuter is probably without any termination, as brûk, skeir, sél.
- 5. Adjectives, the stem of which ends in s, do not adopt the case-sign -s in the nom. sing.; as svés, proprius, gen. svésis: in the same manner the nom. anpar, other: but all other adjectives ending in r take the termination -s in the nom., as svér-s, honoratus; gaúr s, moestus.

## Old High German.

- 1. In Old High German, as well as in all other dialects which e shall yet mention, every s which occurs between two vowels, id which in this position in Gothic already had been converted ito z, is changed into r. This change occurs in Old High terman in the nom. sing. masc. too, hence plint-êr, Goth. lind-s.
- 2. Old High German, as well as the other dialects, drops the j f the pronominal suffix throughout, with the exception of the ligh German nom. sing. fem. ending in ju; but in other espects the pronominal suffix is sometimes more intact than ven in Gothic. Thus the nom. sing. masc. plint-ér may, according to Bopp, be a contraction of plinta-ir, ir the suffix answering to Gothic iu = jis.

3. The case-termination is often dropped, so that plint stands or the nom. sing. masc. plint-ér, fem. plint-ju, neut. plint-az.

4. For the termination ju we find in the nom. sing. fem. u only; and the gen. and dat. fem. may take êrô- for -êrâ, -êru, respectively; the dat. sing. masc. -emo for -emu.

5. The plural has sometimes in the nom. accus. d for  $\hat{e}$ , and,

in later documents, ên for êm in the dative.

6. The j of the thematic ja is either dropped or assimilated to the preceding consonant, as in mitt-ér for mitj-ér. But where the stem is uninflected, the j remains, hardened in i, as miti, medius; kleini, subtilis; hreini, pure; wildi, wild. The adjective fri preserves the thematic j, as frigér, friju, frijaz, or contracted friér, friu, friaz.

7. The spirant w, at the end of the stem, is in the uninflected nom. vocalized into o, as nom. plawer, lividus, uninflected plao.

#### Old Saxon.

1. The full inflexional vowels are frequently weakened; thus the genitive terminations -as, -aro, are replaced by -es, -ero, or -eru; the dative -umu, -aro, by -emu, -um, -on, and -eru, -uru. But the accusative suffix is sometimes preserved in its completeness, especially in compound or polysyllabic adjectives, as languam, slow; unsundig, unhealthy; accus. languam-ana, unsundigina; or, dropping the first a, it is shortened into -na, as mahtig, mighty, acc. mahtig-na. This -na is, later on, weakened into -ne.

2. The nom. plur. neut. has more frequently the weakened -u

instead of the original -a; and the dat. plur. -as is often wellened into -on.

3. Themes in -ja vocalize the j into i in the uninflected, but preserve the j in the inflected cases or weaken it into e, a.g. middi, medius, gen. masc. middj-es, or midde-as, fem. middj &c. But occasionally it occurs that the j is dropped altogether, e. g. derni, occultus, gen. plur. dern'-ero.

4. A stem ending in w commonly vocalizes this w in the unis-

flected nominative, as glau, prudent, gen. glaw-es.

## Anglo-Saxon.

1. The termination - s of the nom. sing. fem. is preserved after monosyllabic adjectives with a short vowel, as kvatu; polysyllabic words weaken it into -e, and adjectives with a long radical

vowel drop it altogether.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives with the short radical a weaken this vowel into  $\ddot{a}$ , unless it is sustained by a terminational vowel e. g. nom. sing. masc. kvät, acer, fem. kvat-u; nom. plur. kvat-t, Other adjectives of this kind are, bar, naked; gen. hrät-ra. bläc, black; hräð, quick; lät, late; spär, spare, &c.

3. A double consonant ending a stem is shortened into a single one before terminations beginning with a consonant, as grim,

gen. masc. grimm-es, gen. fem. grim-re.

4. Themes in ja show a remnant of the thematic j in the terminational e of the uninflected nominative and in the Umlaut of the radical vowel, as blive, blithe; green (O. H. Germ. gruoni); but the inflected cases drop this e throughout, hence blíð-re, grén-re, &c.

#### Old Frisian.

The terminational vowels are generally weakened, and the dative of the masc. and neut. sing. and plur. has dropped the final m, so that this form is identical with the nom. and accus. plur. of the three genders.

Themes in ja have only in the nom. sing. preserved a trace of the ancient j in the termination e, as diore, dear; grêne, green;

rike, rich, &c.

### Old Norse.

Peculiar is the dat. sing. neut. in -u, which bears no analogy to the case-sign -um, derived from the pronominal suffix -amma, the other dialects; and the nom. plur. masc. in -ir, from -is.

It appears that in the first-mentioned case the instrumental case-sign -u has expelled the termination of the dative and usurped its place; in the latter the nominative case-sign of the substantive seems to have found admission into the declension of the

adjective.

Concerning the assimilation, or omission of the r in the nom. sing. as well as in the case-suffixes -rar, -ri, -ra, the same rules hold good which are observed in the declension of the substantive. The -r therefore is dropped if the stem terminates in r, rr, e, or n, which is preceded by a consonant, e. g. snar, quick, gen. fem. snar-ar; vis, wise, vis-ar; iafn, even, iafn-ar. It is assimilated to l and n final of long or polysyllabic stems, as sael-l, happy, for sael-r, gen. fem. sael-lar for sael-rar; brun-n, brown, for brun-r, gen. fem. brun-nar for brun-rar. But the r remains unassimilated after ll and nn ending the stem, e. g. all-r, all, gen. all-rar, &c.; and after single l and n which are preceded by a short vowel, as hol-r, hollow, gen. fem. hol-rar.

The suffix -t of the nom. sing. neut. assimilates a preceding & which follows upon a vowel; if this vowel is long it becomes short under the mentioned circumstance; hence neut. glat-t from masc. gla&-r, got-t from gb&-r, good. If a stem terminates in nd, r&, st, the dental is dropped before the neuter suffix, as blin-t for blind-t, from masc. blind-r; har-t for har&-t, from har&-r, hard. The gemination of l, m, n, r, s, t, is reduced to the single consonant, e. g. snial-t for sniall-t. A preceding r is dropped in

anna-t from annar, other.

Adjectives which, in consequence of having dropped a final spirant, end in a long vowel, double the case-sign of the neuter; e.g. bld-r, blew, O. H. Germ. pldo, pldw-êr, has in the neuter bld-tt; ng-r, new, Goth. niujis, has the neuter ng-tt; so that apparently the spirant has been assimilated to the neuter suffix -t. For the same reason the initial consonants of the suffixes -rar, -ri, -ra, may be doubled; e.g. harrar, ngrrar, by the side of harar, ngrar.

Derivative adjectives in -in have in the neut. i-t for in-t, and in the masc. accus. in-n for in-an; e.g. stoinin-n, lapideus, has

the neut. steini-t, accus. masc. steinin-n.

litil-l (little) and mikil-l (great) have the neut. liti-t, miki-t for litil-t, mikil-t; accus. sing. masc. litin-n, mikin-n: litil-l

moreover shortens the radical vowel, if, before an inflexional vowel, elision of the vowel in the derivative syllable takes place; e. g. dat. sing. litl-nm, litl-n, plur. litl-ir; but gen. sing. liti-n, &e

The vowel i, where it occurs in the pronominal suffix, does not cause Umlaut; but u does, even in the nom. sing. fem. and in the nom. and accus. plur. neut., where it has been dropped; hence the form long in the mentioned cases. The process which occurs in adjectives ending in al and ar is remarkable. In the case just mentioned, where the case-sign u is dropped, they supplant the a of those syllables by the vowel u, which then causes Umlaut of the preceding vowel; e.g. gamal-l, old, fem. gömul for gamal-u); fagar, fair, fem. fögur for fagar(-u). Elision of the vowel in the derivative syllables al and ar always takes place when the case-sign begins with a vowel, as gaml-an for gamal-an.

The adjective *unuar*, other, Goth *anpar*, forms some cases with the stem *unn*, others with the stem *a*8, both standing for the more ancient *an*8.

The decleusion runs thus :--

Singular.					PI.URAL.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Gen.	annar annars	ön <b>nur</b> annarar	annars	aðrir annarra	aSrar annarra	ŏnn <b>u</b> r annarra
Dat.	öllen a	annarri aSra	öðru	öðrum aðra	' öSrum	öSrum

Themes in ja have generally dropped the j, except in the adjectives  $mi\delta r$  (medius),  $n\hat{y}$ -r (new), rik-r (rich), where it is often preserved before the case-sign beginning with the vowel a or u, as midj-um, nuj-an, rikj-u; but where it is dropped it has caused the Umlaut of the preceding vowels, as groenn, green, O. H. Germ.  $gr\acute{o}ni$ , A. S.  $gr\acute{e}ne$ ;  $d\mathring{y}r$ , dear.

The spirant r at the end of a stem, though dropped, has often caused the Umlaut of the preceding a into  $\ddot{o}$ , as  $d\ddot{o}kk-r$ , dark, black;  $g\ddot{o}rr$ , done (comp. Germ. gar). It frequently reappears before case-signs beginning with a vowel, as  $d\ddot{o}kkv-am$ ,  $d\ddot{o}kkv-am$ , &c.; sometimes hardened into f, as  $h\dot{a}-r$ , celsus (Germ. hehr), accus.  $h\dot{a}v-an$  and  $h\dot{a}f-an$ ; but disappears generally in later documents, hence  $h\dot{a}-ir$  for  $h\dot{a}v-ir$ ;  $h\dot{a}-um$ ,  $h\dot{a}-m$  for  $h\dot{a}v-um$ .

## WEAK DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

## PARADIGMS.

## Gothic.

Singular.				Plural.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	blinda	blindô	blindô	blindans	blindôns	blindôna
Gen.	blindins	blindôns	blindins	blindanê	blindônô	blindané
Dat.	blindin	blindôn	blindin	blindam	blindôm	blindam
Acrus.	blinda <b>n</b>	blindon	blinds	blindans	blindôn	blindona

# Old High German.

Singular.					PLURAL.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Masc. plinto plintin plintin plintun	Fem. plintå plintån plintån plintån	Neut.  plinta  plintin  plintin  plinta	Masc.  plintun  plintono  plintom  plintun	Fem.  plintån  plintönö  plintöm  plintån	Neut.  plintûn plintônô plintôm plintûn

## Old Saxon.

Singular.				PLURAL.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc. Fem. Neut.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	blindo(-a) blindun blindun blindun	blinda blindun blindun blindun	blinda blindun blindun blinda	blindu blindônô blindun blindun

## Anglo-Saxon.

	Sin	PLURAL.		
Nom. Gen. Dat.	Masc. blinda blindan blindan	Fem. blinde blindan blindan	Neut. blinde blindan blindan	Masc. Fem. Neut. blindan blindena blindum
Accus.	bl <b>i</b> nda <b>n</b>	blindan		blindan

#### Old Frisian.

	Sex	PLURAL.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc. Fem. Neut.
Nom.	blinda	blinde	blinde blinda	blinda
Gen.	blinda	blinda	blinda	blindena
Dat.	blinda	blinda	blinda	blindum
			blinde	blinda

#### Old Norse.

Singular.				PLURAL.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Masc. langi langa langa langa	Fem. langa löngu löngu löngu	Neut. langa langa langa langa	Masc. Fem. Neut. löngu löngu löngu löngu

## Remarks on the Paradigms.

As we have already stated, and as will readily be seen from the preceding paradigms, the weak declension of the adjectives is, with regard to its case-signs or terminations, in all Teutonic dialects perfectly identical with the weak declension of the noun. A few peculiarities in the different dialects deserve a short notice.

In Gothic the a of the thematic termination -an is, in the feminine, lengthened into  $\delta$ , hence the lengthened theme  $-\delta n$ . Adjectives in ja preserve the thematic ja in the weak declension, though the j may have been dropped in the strong declension, e. g. hrainja, gen. hrainjins, dat. hrainjin, &c. (strong, hrain-s, &c.) Themes in u adopt the forms in ja, hence hardja, hardjins, &c. (strong, hardus, &c.) The weak adjective ainaha, solus (Germ. einiger), has the fem. ainôhô.

Old High German and Old Saxon have preserved the Gothic feminine theme in  $\delta n$  in the darkened form  $\ell n$ , which in Old Saxon however may rather be the shortened -un. Anglo-Saxon adopts the theme in -an for the singular of all genders, with the exception of the nominative feminine and neuter and accusative neuter. The plural is, in Old Saxon and Anglo-Saxon, identi-

cally the same for all genders.

Old Frisian and Old Norse reject in the singular of the adjective as well as of the substantive declension the thematic -n, and allow the word to end in the bare vowel a, or its modification in i or u. In Old Norse, moreover, it is the singular only which has preserved the terminations of the weak declension of the noun, while the plural, rejecting whatever case-signs the noun has preserved, adopted the neuter termination u for all cases and

all genders.

The Old Norse themes in jan and van preserve their respective spirant throughout, except that the nom. -ji is commonly rendered by i, as riki, rikja; dökkvi, dökkva. Some adjectives have the weak declension only, e.g. lami, lame; faxi, jubatus; full-tivi, full-grown, or they adopt in all genders the indeclinable termination -a, as lama.

### DECLENSION OF THE PARTICIPLES.

#### PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

These participles have in all Teutonic dialects a substantive as well as an adjective declension; as to the former we refer to the proper place. The adjective declension of the present participle

again may be strong or weak.

The Gothic dialect uses the strong form in the nom. masc. only; in the weak declension the feminine is not formed after the analogy of the adjectives in -6n, but by a more ancient theme in -ein, hence the fem. of hilpanda, helping (Germ. helfend), is hilpandei, gen. hilpandeins<sup>2</sup>, &c.

Old High German declines the adjective form of the participle regularly after the analogy of the strong and weak declensions of the adjective; hence strong, gëbantër, gebantju, gëbanta;

weak, gëbanto, gëbanta, gëbanta.

Old Saxon is fond of introducing the spirant j before the case-signs; as to the rest it follows the strong and weak declensions of the adjectives; e. g. strong, hëlpandi, helpandi, helpandi, gen. helpandjes, helpandjero, helpandjes, &c. From this example it will appear that the j in the nominative (as in all indeclinable cases) is vocalized into i. Such an i we find in Old High German too where the cases of the strong declension of the participle adopt the indeclinable form, as gebanti in all genders instead of gëbantër, gëbantju, gëbantaz. This i must of course, like that in Old Saxon, have its origin in an ancient j, which in the participle declension was commonly preserved before the case-signs by the Old Norse, but rejected by the Old High German dialect.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See the declension of the themes in -nd, p. 324.
<sup>2</sup> Compare the weak noun managei, manageins,

Anglo-Saxon hardly differs at all from the preceding dialects in the declension of the participle present. Like them it follows the strong and weak declension of the adjective, and like them it shows the trace of an ancient j before the case-signs in the termination e of the uninflected cases of the strong declension, as nom. gifende, gen. gifendes; weak, masc. gifenda, fem. neut. gifende.

Old Frisian follows in every respect the rules laid down for

Anglo-Saxon.

Old Norse has, like Gothic, preserved in the feminine the ancient termination i (Goth. ei), which has been lost in all the other dialects. This fem. i has in the plural usurped the position of all other terminations; hence sing. masc. gefandi, gefandi, gefandi, gefandi, gefandi, gefandi, gefandi, gefandi in all cases and genders. But by the side of this indeclinable plural the masculine has the strong substantive forms in -r (from ir, therefore causing Umlaut), as nom. gefend-r, gen. gefanda, &c.

### PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.

It follows in Gothic and all other Teutonic dialects the strong

and weak declensions of the adjective.

With regard to Old High German we have however to observe that the pret. part. of the weak conjugation drops the characteristic vowel i (ja), from which cause 'Rück-Umlaut' may be produced; e.g. gi-nant-êr, named (Germ. ge-nannt), instead of gi-nennit-êr; but where the participle is uninflected the characteristic vowel remains, hence gi-nennit.

Old Norse displays a peculiarity in forming the pret. part. of weak verbs with a short radical in -i\delta r instead of -\delta r. The forms in i\delta r may exchange the \delta r for nn, an exchange we have often observed with n\delta and nn; hence we have the forms tali\delta r, tali\delta, talit, and talinn, talin(?), talit; and from both forms may be derived oblique cases, as gen. masc. tali\delta -s, (talin-s?), gen. fem. talin-nar, plur. fem. nom. tald-ar, gen. talin-na: from which examples it would appear that case-signs beginning with a consonant prefer the form in -n to precede them.

### DECLENSION OF THE INFINITIVE.

The Teutonic dialects, with the exception of the Gothic and the Old Norse, possess a declension of the infinitive which is analogous to the strong declension of the noun. In Old High German the infinitive, though in itself it is but the accusative of a verbal noun, developes a new theme in -a, from which it forms two new cases, a genitive and a dative; e.g. hëlfan, to help, gen. hëlfannes, dat. hëlfanne; nerjan, servare, gen. nerjannes, dat. nerjanne. In the same manner proceeds the Old Saxon infinitive; e.g. hëlpan, gen. hëlpannas(-es), dat. hëlpanna(-e); nerjan, nerjannas, nerjanna. Here too we occasionally find the derivative j before the thematic vowel. Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian have only the dative, which however occurs pretty frequently; e.g. A.S. faranne, etenne; O. Fris. farane gungane. As to the latter we observe that the n of the infinitive, which is usually dropped, in this case reappears.

## MIDDLE TEUTONIC DECLENSIONS.

In the Middle Teutonic dialects the declensions undergo great changes, and in consequence thereof can no longer be brought under the same classification which we adopted in the Old Teutonic languages. The terminational vowels are each and all weakened into e, so that in the singular the declension in a can no longer be kept distinct from that in i, both i and a being rendered by e. The declension in u disappears altogether; and thus it happens that a distinction of three strong declensions, characterized by three different thematic vowels, becomes all but impossible. But on the other hand there continues to exist the distinction between the strong and the weak declensions—a distinction which in some dialects has been preserved up to the present day. We further observe the continuation of the different inflectional forms of the different genders, and we therefore arrange the declensions of the Middle and New Teutonic languages under the heads of Strong and Weak, and then again sub-divide according to the different genders, always indicating the thematic vowel as far as it can be traced. Features of development which are peculiar to one or the other of the Middle Teutonic dialects will be delineated in their proper places.

The weakening down of the different thematic and terminational vowels into the one flat-sounding e deprived the Teutonic languages of their finest phonetic ornament, and the inflectional forms, where such still continue to exist, have a wearisome sameness about them, so that it is almost difficult to say which serves the highest praise and admiration:—New High German, for its fidelity to ancient inflexional forms, though they be ever

so mutilated, flat, and unmusical; or Modern English for having, with wonderful discrimination, eliminated from its system the shattered remains of inflexional forms which, their functions being performed by other means, have often become mere cumbersome ballast.

## Old and Middle English.

Among late Anglo-Saxon authors Layamon alone distinguishes three declensions for the three different genders. The masculine follows, on the whole, the Anglo-Saxon declension in a, so that the genitive singular commonly shows es, the dative e, the latter being sometimes replaced by en. The instrumental is In the plural we find es and en side by side, the latter having perhaps found its way from the dative into other cases, or being formed in analogy to the weak declension in n. The genitive plural has the termination ene (A.S. ena), besides a and en; the dative plural en (A.S. um, on). Nouns which in Anglo-Saxon already had the Umlaut, preserve it in the plural (though not always), and drop it in the dative singular. Examples: — sing. nom. dai (day) = A. S. dag; gen. dages, dages; dat. daze, daye. The dative is formed with en in cnihlen, kingen. The nom. plur. has es or en, e.g. dæges, dawen (=dagen); sones, sonen; the gen. plur. en, es, ena, ene, as dægen, kinges or kingena, eorlene; the dat. en, e.g. dazen, dawen (=dagen)'. The Umlaut is preserved in fet, feet, by the side of which occurs also the plur. fole (feet); man has the plur. men and monnen; wifman, wiman, womman (woman), plur. wifmen, wimen.

The feminine nouns follow chiefly the Anglo-Saxon declension in i. In the genitive and dative singular they have the termination e; but in the genitive the termination es begins to encroach upon the legitimate e, so that in this case the feminine form becomes identical with the masculine and neuter. The plural shows in the nominative the terminations es and en, gen. e, dat. en, accus. e. But es often assumes the place of all other terminations in the different cases of the plural. Umlaut is preserved only in boc, plur. bæc, by the side of boc and bokes. Examples:—burh (borough, castle), gen. burze, dat. burze, plur. nom. burzes, gen. burze, dat. burzen, accus. burze.

The neuter has the regular terminations in analogy to the Anglo-Saxon declension in **a**, gen. es, dat. e; but in the latter, as in the dative singular masculine, we find also en, as londe, londen, dat. of lond (land). The plural nominative preserves the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Concerning the relation of the consonants 3, w, g, to one another, and to the semi-vowel y, see the respective sections on Old English consonants, pp. 146 and 162.

ancient uninflected forms, e. g. bern, scep, hors; but also enscipen, leoten; childe has the plur. childre and children; even es is introduced—scipes. The genitive plural has sometimes ene for e, as scipene.

The weak declension in n begins to be broken up since the nwas no longer considered as an inherent part of the theme, but as an inflexional form. Consequently the n is often dropped or superseded by the termination es; but on the other hand the n encroaches upon the nominative too, where e (rarely a) occupies the place of the Anglo-Saxon a. So again in the genitive plural, \* is added to the ancient termination ene (A.S. ena). Examples: -sing. nom. noma, nome; swiken; gen. draken, drakes; dat. monen, mone (moon); plur. nom. draken, drakes; gen. gumene, gumenen; dat. sterren, storre; accus. teonen, teone; namen, names. The feminine is subject to the same fluctuations; as gen. sing. churche and churches; dat. sunne and sunnen (sun); accus. eorpen and corpe; plur. nom. heorten and heortes; gen. wikene; dat. accus. wiken and wike; accus. chirchen and chirches. Neut. ege (eye), plur. nom. accus. ezene; dat. ezan, ezenen. The themes in -r, such as fæder (father), moder (mother), &c., are in the singular indeclinable; in the plural we find en, es, and s, side by side; the genitive is sometimes uninflected, sometimes with the termination ne, as dohter and dohterne (filiarum).

The forms we have just enumerated, and which, as we have already stated, most frequently occur in Layamon, are far more extensively modified by other authors. We may limit ourselves to pointing out the most important modification, which consists in the introduction of the case-sign es, or ess, in the genitive singular and in the plural of all genders.

Old English abandons the grammatical gender, or identifies it with the sexes, and the distinction therefore of the genders in the declension is discontinued. Inflexional forms are limited to the genitive singular, the plural, and some remnants of the dative.

The Plural is commonly formed by the termination -s (-es, -is, -ys), as dayes, kinges, townes; rarely by -e, as erle, monke, monpe; more frequently by en or n, e.g. clerken, applen, oxen, chirchen, honden (hands), eyen; by -er—childer, childir, to which is added a second plural termination, child-er-en. The Umlaut indicates the plural in—fot, fet; top, tep; man, men; wommann, wymmen; gos, gese; kou, kie.

With regard to the chief plural signs en and es, it must be observed that they do not in Old English represent the Anglo-Saxon plurals, the former of the weak declension in -an, the

latter of the strong in -as, but that one or the other was adopted quite arbitrarily; hence we find O. Engl. dayes, levedys, ricke, for A. S. dagas, hlæfdigan, ricu; and O. Engl. clereken, honden, oren, and heuenden for A. S. clericas, hundas, oran, and heafod.

Concerning the Cases, none but the genitives and isolated

traces of the dative are preserved.

The genitive singular commonly has the case-sign -ys, -es, -'s, as kynges, Gode's, 3ere's (anni); in the phrase 'kyng Kenulf ys fader,' it is doubtful whether ys must be taken as the genitive case-sign, or the possessive pronoun. (Koch, i. p. 415.) Sometimes it is dropped altogether, as 'for his broper dep,' 'pe quene fader,' 'my fader name.' Observe 'pe name of pe fadere' (Koch, loc. cit.) as the first appearance of the preposition of for the indication of the genitive.

The genitive plural remains where the plural sign is es, uninflected, as 'be Danes king'; but if the plural does not end in s already, the genitive adopts the case-sign es, as men, mennes; the old case-sign ene is rarely met, e. g. monkene, clerkene.

Traces of the dative are considered to be left in the following phrases: ye owne honde, with his own hand; Gode next, nearest

to God.

Middle English. The inflexional forms of the dative disappear, and the declension is limited to the formation of the plural and of the genitive case.

The PLURAL is formed by the termination s (es, is, ys, rarely us), e.g. thornes, thornys, sones, folkis, thingis, thingus, hondis, hondus; sometimes z for s in Romance words, as citez and citees. After v the s is always preceded by e, as wives, knives, theres.

The plural in en must be considered an exceptional mode of formation. Examples are—kneen, shoon, oxen, ashen, eyen, sustren (sisters), daughtren, kien, bretheren. We have two plural terminations, er and en, in the words child-er-en, calv-er-en, lamb-r-en; ey-r-en (comp. Germ. eier), by the side of the regular plural eyges (eggs).

The plural is indicated by the ancient Umlaut in the following words: fete, feet, but we find also fote; goos, gees; lous, lys; mous, mys, mees; man, men; womman, wommen, wemmen, wymmen;

tooth, teeth; brother, bretheren 1.

Some words, which in Anglo-Saxon were neuter, appear without the plural sign s, and consequently seem to follow the analogy of the ancient uninflected forms, e.g. hors, scheep, swyne, thing, frut (fruit), but also horses, thinges, frutes; peny has penyes and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> About the irregularities in the phonetic system of Old and Middle English, the student will find explanations in the chapters on Vowels and Consonants.

the measures span and fadme fathem occur without these, furlanges, with the plural sign a be genitive singular is formed by -1, -1, -1 Wreinfe. -1 (Chaucer); e. g. Goddis, chykenys and coein; research if a ow), stones (of a stone); surges fearch park. be genitive plural is not indicated after with winch have plural case-sign s; but where the plural is fremed in the man, as serves to indicate the genitive case. At motion as with the words childrene (of children derbese, respective with without, more often with, the genitive case sign; house the ther love'; but 'thi fathris brother.' The kings motions at 'Observe' the brother of his fader' Koch, 1, 2, 4.

## Middle High German.

All the different terminational vowels are weakened must a e features of the thematic declensions are therefore in the se the other Middle Teutonic dialects. great mutates one nes hardly traceable. This circumstance causes a maduum tween the declension in a and that in i. the stagues of are ing perfectly alike, a defect which is Of High forman eady becomes apparent. The plurals of beth comments are en kept strictly apart by means of the Union when the 100 in words with the theme in i. But there again are my words that, from the nature of the radius works cannot ve the Umlaut, as tisch, &c. These then was to ranges to tinguished from the declension in a the weed in i clining exactly like risch (in a). Words in a van nd, sometimes adopt an inorganic Umlaut, and them temagram on the declension in i. The original cause of the Unique a neral being no longer perceived, Umlant is formed on winer alogy, and we thus meet with the plural birte, friend in 1 stead of bocke, frosche (in a). But as a rule, mouseulus wome, e stem of which ends with a geminated command. process to mil in a, and consequently reject Umbant, e. z. zee zee. w. kusse; but in the fourteenth century about these s inorganic Umlaut, plur. küsse.

pouliar feature of the Middle High Cornau terramona n of the e in the terminations. Thus me words which end in a single commonant of the e is dropped; e. g. kd, war, gentenomenon we charact in the features farm. Feminine words it is may then

the terminational e of the genitive and dative, and then the word is uninflected in the singular. The neuter performs the clision of the e under the same conditions as the masculine; hence spër, gen. spër-s; tal, plur. telr for teler. If neuter nouns which originally belonged to the declension in ja drop the e, as they do sometimes, they may be ranked under the declension in a, as ber (for bere), gen. ber-s.

Concerning the Umlaut in the plural of the words in i no strict rule can be laid down, further than the remark that certain combinations of consonants seem to favour its occurrence. Some neuter nouns take in the plural the termination er (comp. O. H. Germ. ir), which termination causes Umlaut, e.g. kalp, kelber; ort, örter; lock, löcher; most of which may also have the old uninflected plural without er. While some nouns always

adopt this termination, others never do so.

Neuter nouns in ja always adopt the Umlaut, wherever this

modification of the radical vowel can take place.

The weak declension adopts the same rules for the elision of the terminational e which we have just pointed out in the strong declension; e.g. kol, koln; ar, arn.

We subjoin the paradigms of the different declensions, indicating the thematic vowels as far as they can be traced.

	8.			8.		i		
MASCULINE			1		-11			
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.		
Nom.	risch	rische	hirte	hirte	balc	belge		
Gen.	visches	vische	hirtes	hirte	balges	belge		
Dat.	vische	vischen	hirte	hirten	balge	belgen		
Accus.	visch	vische	hirte	hirte	bale	belge		
FEMININE.								
Nom.	gebe	gebe	N	1	kraft	krefte		
Gen.	gebe	geben	∥ ∷:		krefte	krefte		
Dat.	gebe	geben		::	krefte krefe	kreften		
Accus.	gebe	gebe			kraft	krefte		
NEUTER.								
Nom.	wort	wort	künne	künne	li	١		
Gen.	wortes	worte	künnes	künne	<b>II</b>			
Dat.	worte	worten	künne	künner	s	1		
Accus.	wort	wort	künne	künne				

As to the declension in a the paradigms will show it to be the only one traceable in all three genders; the declension in ja is

lost in the feminine and becomes identical with that in a, because Old High German i = ja and a both become e. The neuter never had a declension in i. We omitted giving examples of the declension in i, because there are but few remnants of it left, and these are doubtful. Among these Grimm reckons such words as end in e without causing Umlaut, a circumstance from which he concludes that the e stands for the ancient u, e.g. schate (never schete), damage. He further takes to the declension in i the words sige (victory), wite (wood), site (manner), vride (peace); but in the thirteenth century all, except vride, drop the e and go after the declension in i. Among the ancient class in i may also count the neuter vihe, cattle; wite is sometimes neuter, commonly masculine.

#### Middle Dutch.

MASC. (a) vissch, -es, -e, vissch; plur. vissche, -e, -en, -e.

Fem. (a) sing. miede, plur. mieden throughout all cases (i) sing. daet throughout; plur. dade, -e, -en, -e.

NEUT. (a) wort, word-es, -e, wort; plur. wort, -e, -en, wort. Ancient themes in ja end in e and go after the weak declension.

The WEAK DECLENSION is for the masculine, feminine, and neuter alike, e. g. hane, -en, -en, -e; plur. -en throughout.

# MODERN TEUTONIC DECLENSIONS.

#### English.

All the case-signs of the ancient declensions have disappeared with the exception of the 's of the genitive singular, and the -s (or -es) which all nouns have adopted for the formation of the plural. A few remnants of the ancient forms are still extant, especially in words which indicate the plural by Umlaut; these are brother, brether-en (Umlaut and ancient termination en); man, men; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; louse, lice; cow, kine;—ox, ox-en, preserves the ancient plural sign en, and child, child-r-en, has two plural terminations, r=er (O. H. Germ. ir) and en: the old plural egren, of egg, is disused in the modern language.

The foreign plural forms which have been adopted in English together with the foreign word—such as French beau, beaux; Latin index, indices; Greek phenomenon, phenomena; Hebrew seraph, seraphim—may still be considered as foreign, and there-

fore hardly to fall within the range of Teutonic grammar. The circumscriptive case-formation with the prepositions of and a which occasionally occurs in Old English already, came now and more into use, the more the ancient case-signs disappeared.

### German.

#### MASCULINE.

	Declension in a.		Declension in i.			
	Sing.	Plur.		Sing.	Plur.	
Nom.	fisch	fische	Nom.	balg	bälge	
Gen.	jisches	fische	Gen.	balges	bälge	
Dat.	fische	fischen	Dat.	balge	bälgen	
Accus.	jisch	fische	Accus.	balg	hälge	

The declension in **u** is extinct; the declension in **ja** is represented by one word, *kaese*, cheese, gen. *kaeses*, &c., whilst all those words which of old belonged to this declension have become weak, e. g. *hirte*, shepherd, gen. *hirten*.

Many words in a also have passed from the strong into the weak declension; others have done so partly, that is, forming their singular after the strong, their plural after the weak declension, as mast, gen. mastes, plur. masten; stackel (sting), gen.

stachels, plur. stacheln.

The Umlaut is more extensively adopted in the plural of words in a; and the presence or absence of Umlaut being the only distinctive feature between the declension in a and that in i, these words may be considered as having passed into the declension in i. This is the case with all those words which are capable of Umlaut, i. e. having a, o, u, or au in the root, with the exception of about nine that reject the Umlaut and consequently remain faithful to the declension in a; e. g. aal, eel, plur. aale; tág, day, plur. táge; hund, dog, plur. hunde; schuh, plur. schuhe.

## FEMININE.

	Declension in a.		De	clension in	i.
	Sing.	Plur.		Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	gabe	gaben	Nom.	kraft	kräfte
Gen.	gabe	gaben	Gen.	kraft	kräfte
Dat.	gabe	gaben	Dat.	kraft	kräften
Accus.	gabe	gaben	Accus.	kraft	kräfte

The declensions in ja and u are extinct.

The singular has dropped all inflectional forms.

Words in i which cannot have the Umlaut, follow the declension in a and take in the plural the termination en, e. g. arbeit,

work, labour, plur. arbeiten; the same course is pursued by some words which are capable of Umlaut, as burg (castle), geburt (birth), thát (deed), júgend (youth), túgend (virtue), plur. burgen, &c. Some pass altogether into the declension in a, and consequently adopt the e (the representative of the ancient a) in the singular, e. g. eiche (oak), geschichte (history, story), bluete, (blossom); M. H. Germ. eich, geschiht, bluot, plur. eiche, geschihte, &c. From this old plural form the e probably penetrated into the modern singular.

NEUTER. Declension in a: wort, gen. wortes, is declined like the masc. fisch.

The plural in er is more frequent, and causes Umlaut; e.g.

buch (book), bücher, dach (roof), dächer.

Words in ja, which on the earlier stage of Modern German ended in e, as bette, bilde, glücke, have now dropped the e and go after the declension in a, as bett, gen. bettes.

## Weak Declension.

To this declension belong all words which in the nominative singular end in e; they have the termination en through all other cases of the singular and plural; e.g. hase, hare, gen. hasen.

Some drop the final e of the nominative singular, as baer, bear; fürst, prince; graf, earl; herr, lord, master; mensch, man, This apocope has perhaps been caused by a tendency in the mentioned words towards the strong declension. same course towards the strong declension, though from a different starting-point, we observe in words such as bôgen, bow, gen. bogens, for the M. H. Germ. boge, bogen—words in which the inflexional en seems to have been mistaken for a derivative termination, and then were supplied with the genitive case-sign -s of the strong declension. To this class belong graben, ditch; brunnen, well; glauben, faith; haufen, heap; kuchen, cake; ndmen, name; willen, will; frieden, peace; schatten, shade. Some of them preserve the ancient e by the side of en, as friede, schatte, glaube, wille. Their origin in the weak declension is further recognized by the fact of their having no Umlaut, which always occurs with originally strong nouns in en, as wagen, carriage, waegen; boden, floor, boeden. In but few instances, and then erroneously, have such words as were originally of weak declension taken the Umlaut, e.g. garten, garden, gärten; gråben, ditch, graeben; mågen, stomach, maegen; krågen, collar, kraegen.

The M. H. Germ. spor (spur), sporn, ought, in New High German, to have become spore, sporen, or (like bogen) sporen, sporen; but it adopted a mixed form, i. e. the singular of the strong and the plur. of the weak declension, sporn, gen. spornes, plur. spornes.

The following words pass altogether from the weak into the strong declension: âr and adler (eagle), mond (moon), kein, (germ), stern (star), declension in a; hân (cock), salm (salmon),

schwan (swan), herzog (duke), declension in i.

We find digression from the strong (in a) into the weak declension in the words held, hero; rābe, gen. raben, for the old raben, rabens,—which shows the case of bögen, &c., inverted: from the strong in ja, hirte (shepherd), rücke (back), weize (wheat); but the latter again follow the analogy of böge, bögen, and return into the strong declension in the forms rücken, weizen, gen. rückens, weizens.

The feminine of the weak declension is identical with the

feminine of the strong declension in a.

The weak neuter nouns herz-(heart), auge (eye), or (ear), have adopted a strong singular, gen. herzens, auges, ores; but the

plural continues to follow the weak declension.

Of the anomalous forms, vater (father) and schwager (brother-in-law) now follow the declension in i; mutter (mother) and tochter (daughter) are in the singular unchangeable, in the plural they take the Umlaut, mütter, töchter; schwester (sister) and schwiger (mother-in-law) are in the singular indeclinable, in the plural weak. mann has the plural mannen and männer.

## Examples:—

Strong. Masculine in a:—ál, eel; berg, mountain; biß, bite; dieb, thief; fisch, fish; freund, friend; feind, enemy; geisl, spirit (cf. ghost); hirsch, stag; hund, dog, hound; krieg, war; leib, body; pfeil, arrow; stein, stone; spér, spear; tág, day; theil, deal; tisch, table; weg, way; wein, wine; zwerg, dwarf; zweig, twig. In i:—ast, branch; bach, brook; balg, skin, hide; baum, tree; fluß, river; frosch, frog; füß, foot; fuchs, fox; grund, ground; höf, court, yard; koch, cook; mund, mouth; pfád, path; pflüg, plough; wolf.

Feminine in a:—amme, nurse; bêre, berry; bitte, prayer; blûme, flower (cf. bloom); êre, honour; henne, hen; fliege, fly; minne, love; náse, nose; quelle, fountain; rûte, rod; ságe, tale, saga; schwalbe, swallow; sonne, sun; straße, street; woche, week; zunge, tongue. In i:—angst, fear, anxiety; bank, bench; brust, breast; faust, fist; gans, goose; hand; kraft, strength (cf. craft);

kunst, art; luft, air; macht, power, might; nacht, night.

Neuter in a:—beil, hatchet; brôt, bread; ding, thing; eis **ce; fleisch**, flesh; gold; hár, hair; heu, hay; jár, year; knie, **knee**; maß, measure; pferd, horse; roß, horse, steed; schaf, **sheep**; schiff, ship; schwert, sword; thier, animal; vih, pecus; werk, work; wort, word.

WEAK. Masculine:—affe, ape; bûbe, boy; drache, dragon; falke, falcon; götze, idol; hase, hare; junge, youth; knábe, boy; laie, layman; lowe, lion; ochse, ox; rise, giant; waise, orphan; zeuge, witness.

Concerning feminine and neuter nouns, see above.

#### Dutch.

This dialect no longer distinguishes between strong and weak declensions.

All nouns may, instead of the inflexional forms of the genitive and dative, use the circumscriptive cases formed by the prepositions van (of) and aan = an (to); e.g. van den vader, aan den vader; van de vaders, aan de vaders; van de moeder, aan de moeder; van de moeders, aan de moeders; van het boek, aan het boek; van de boeken, aan de boeken, just as English of the father, to the father, of the book, &c.

Masc. All nouns have in the genitive singular the case-sign -s (after ft, cht, st, sch, -es), in the plural -en throughout; or in other words, they follow the strong declension in the singular, the weak in the plural; hence sten (stone), formerly of the strong declension, has in the genitive stens, in the plural stenen; and han (cock), formerly weak, has likewise hans in the genitive singular, hanen in the plural. The genitive and dative singular, as a rule, show no inflexional forms, though occasionally the dative singular still preserves the ancient case-sign -e, especially where it is preceded by the article, as den vosse, vulpi.

Nouns ending in el, em, er, ar, may form the plural with s; e. g. vader, father, plur. vaders; wagen, carriage, wagens; dienar, servant, dienars; but the weak forms vaderen, &c. also occur, especially in the higher style of writing; words in en only take

always 8.

Sometimes we meet in the nominative singular with the termination e which is the remnant of the ancient termination or of the weak declension, as in vrêde, peace; rugge, back; yonge, youth; ewe, heir; name, name.

The word veulen, foal, gen. veulens, passes from the weak into the strong declension, analogous to the Germ. bôgen, bôgens, &c.

(vide supra, p. 351.)

The weak genitives in en are exceptional, as hêren (domin), grâren (comitis), menschen (hominis), hertôgen (ducis), which in High German are the regular forms, herren, grafen, menschen; but herzogs.

FEM. The feminine nouns take in the genitive and dative singular the case-sign e, in the plural en through all cases, the former being derived from the strong, the latter from the weak declension. Hence kracht, power (Germ. kraft, cf. craft), gen. krachte, dat. krachte; plur. krachten (formerly of the strong declension), and tong, tongue, gen. tonge, dat. tonge, plur. tongen (formerly of the weak declension).

As in the masculine, nouns in el, en, er, may form the plural

in -s, as netels, splinters.

Feminine nouns which originally ended in ja or a, or belonged to the weak declension, sometimes preserve the e, the weakened form of the ancient termination, and then all the cases of the singular are alike; e. g. árde, earth; béde, prayer; duive, dove; henne, hen; koude, cold; stemme, voice, or simply stem, hen, &c.

The declension of the NEUTER coincides with that of the masculine.

Here also the plural in -s may occur, as waters, bloempjes, &c. The ancient plural form of the neuter in er is in the refined style followed by the plural sign -en, in the common language by -s, e.g. bén, bone; benderen, benders; blád, leaf (Germ. blatt); ey, egg; kind, child; lam, lamb; plur. kinderen, lammeren. But these words may also have the regular plural in -en, as blád, bláden; so that consequently certain words may adopt three different forms, as blád, plur. bláden, or bláderen, or bláders.

The old termination -e occurs occasionally in the nominative

singular, as herte (heart), bedde (bed), for hert, bed.

# Examples :-

Masc. árd, kind; árm; bér, bear; bóm, tree; dág, day; dief, thief; disch, table (Germ. tisch); dôd, death; gast, guest; gést, ghost; grond, ground; hond, dog (Germ. hund, cf. hound); kus, kiss; mond, mouth; sláp, sleep; smid, smith; stén, stone (Germ. stein); visch, fish; vloed, flood; vos, fox; vriend, friend; wolf; worm; wég, way.

FEM. ar, ear of corn (Germ. aere); bruid, bride; dád, deed; deugd, virtue; deur, door; ér, honour (Germ. êre); gans, goose; geit, goat (Germ. geiß); jeugd, youth; kracht, power (Germ. kraft, cf. craft); lucht, air (Germ. luft); mågd and meid, maid; min, love; muis, mouse; stad, town; tâl, language; vrouw, wife

वाता विकार : क्रम्पानी कार्यों को उसके अर्थ विकास क्षेत्र, वी क्रोडेस : जल्मी कार्या जिल्लामा क्षेत्र

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#### Spraine.

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and länder, stander, riner, by the side of the regular plural to stand, rise. They are commonly used with the suffixed artie.g. kynnen, riken.

Weak Decleanion.

	Мании	LINE	1	PERINDE.			
Nom. Gen. Dat. Areus.	Sing. Afine (-or) Afine (-o) Afine (-o)	Plux. Ainors Linors Linor (-om) Linor	Sing tungu tungu tungu tungu	(-se) (-o)	Plur. tungur tungur tungur (-on) tungur		
		NEUTE	-				
	Nom. hier Gen. hier Dat. hier Accus. hier	ta hiertan tas hiertans ta hiertan	Sing.	Plur. orgon orgon orgon			

The terminations given in parentheses are used in old do ments.

Feminine nouns occur in the singular without the a, as rose; våg, wave (Germ. woge).

## Anomalous.

fåder, bröder, form the plural faedar, broedar, or faedrar, br drar; möder, moedrar; dotter, dottrar; man, männer, in co pounds män.

The feminine nouns gas, goose; lus, louse; mus, mouse, ha

the plural gäss, löss, möss.

Monosyllabic stems ending in a vowel commonly are inflecregularly, but sometimes they drop the inflexional vowel.

## Examples :-

STRONG. Masculine in a:—arm; dâg, day; dâl, dale; fist fish; häst, horse; g; hoeg, hill hügel); law; orm, worm; stôl, chair; words ending in at re, lover; j i:—balk, beam (C i ed, out limb; rätt, right; m. sitte) boy, swain; caen, fri stoeder; sôn, soener.

Feminine in a:—aln, all: beck. beech; ck. oak; kid. skin rm. haut); jord, earth; mán, mane: rjud, soul; ridm, me; sól, sun; ridrld, world. In i:—ben, prayer; kielp, p; kind, hind; kraft, power: ben, reward Germ. Ion; min, en; noed, need; brt, wort; sik. cause: tid. time, tide. In:—bók, book, plur. becker; kind. hand, binder; nat. night, ütter; rót, root, rötter; tond. tooth. bioler.

Neuter in a:—ar, year: bara, child: bea, bone; berg, nountain; bldd, leaf; diur, animal Germ, thier; felk, people, folk; glds, glass; haf sea: har, hair; lamb; land; line, light; ord, word; sar, wound, sore; secret, sword: tigel, horse-tail; name, name; ratten, water; huffeld, head. In ja:—aerende, message; äpple, apple; heele, wheat; klosele, dress; kynne, kin;

minne, memory; naste, nest; rarde, worth.

Weak. Masculine:—ande, spirit; bialke, beam; bige, bow (Germ. bôgen); háre, hare; háne, cock; lunge, lung; mane, moon; ore, ox.

Feminine:—aska, ashes; boena, bean; hoena, hen; manniska, man (Germ. mensch:; naesu, nose; qrinna, woman; sliena, star.

Neuter:—hierta, heart; nysta, glomus; oega, eye (Germ. auge); oera, ear.

#### Danish.

MASCULINE IN &		IN	i ja		n i	ש או		
Gen. Dat.		fiekes	Sing. sieker siekers sieker sieker	Plur. fiskere fiskeres fiskere fiskere	Sing. rém réms rém rém	Plur.  venner  renners  renner  tenner	Sing. föd föde föd föd	Plur. födder födders födder födder

Some words in a suffer syncope in the plural, as finger, plur. fingre, whilst those in ja always preserve all syllables intact, and thus keep their declension distinct from that in a, hence fisker, plur. always fiskere, not fiskre.

The declension in i is characterized by its rejection of the Unlaut, that in u for introducing it in the plural.

Francis	п	w i	11%	u
	Sing.	Plur. såger såger såger	Sing. tend tands tand tand	Plur. tänder tänder tänder tänder

NEUTER IN &							
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.			
Nom.	ord	ord	fad	fåde			
Gen.	ords	ords	fada	fades			
Dat.	oni	ord	fåd	fâde			
Accus.	ord	ord	fad	fâde			

The termination e is chiefly used in the plural of originally had a short radical, though this radical long. This e is remarkable as being the represent ancient termination u, and still more striking is th barn, child, plur. börn, an Umlaut which was origin by the termination u, and which was preserved after vowel had been dropped.

The plural in er occurs in the nouns bryst, bre

hoved, head, hoveder; sted, place, steder, &c.

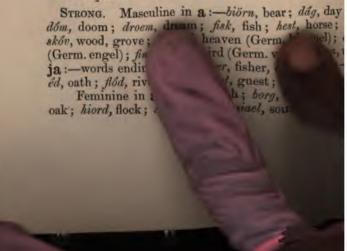
Nouns in ja have frequently passed into the decl those which remained faithful to their declension Swedish, the singular in e, and in the plural, if the all, er, or the suffixed article; e.g. klaede, dress; plu

Weak Declension.

MASCULINE.		FEMININE.	NEUTEB		
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. háne hánes hâne háne	Plur. håner håner håner	Like MASCULINE.	Sing. hierte hiertes hierte hierte	hier hier hier

Some weak nouns suffer apocope of the e in the aand, spirit; oxe, ox, has the plural öxene, öxne, no haps from a singular öxen of the strong declension.

# Examples :-



(Germ. frau); wereld, world; wik, vicus; zak, thing (Germ.

sache, cf. sake); ziel, soul (Germ. séle).

NEUT. bed; blad, leaf (Germ. blatt); bloed, blood; dal, dale; dél, deal; ding, thing; goud, gold; hár, hair; hôfd, head; huis, house; jár, year; kruis, cross; lid, limb; lôd, lead; mél, meal; scháp, sheep; werk, work; wôrd, word; zout, salt; zwérd, sword.

### Swedish.

MASCULINE IN &		ln	ja	1	n i	12	N UL	
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	fiek fieks fiek fiek	fiskar fiskars fiskar fiskar	fiskare fi-kares fiskare fiskare	fiskare fiskares fiskares fiskare	vaen vaens vaen vaen	vänner vänners vänner vänner	8ôn 8ôns 6ôn 8ôn	soener soeners soener soener

The declension in ja shows the singular and plural perfectly alike. It comprises many words ending in are (Engl. and Germ. er; comp. fiskare with Engl. fisher, Germ. fischer).

Most Old Norse nouns in u have passed into the declension in a: some preserve the Umlaut; as örn, eagle; biörn, bear, plur. örnar, biörnar; others drop it, as vall, valley, tråd, thread, plur. vallar, trådar.

FEMININE IN &		IN ja	1	n i	11	u
Sing. Nom. sôl Gen. sôls Dat. sôl Accus. sôl	Plur. sõlar sõlars sõlar	wanting.	Sing. kraft krafts kraft kraft	Plur. krafter krafters krafter krafter	Sing. tund tands tand tand	Plur. tänder tänder tänder tänder

The criterion of the declension in **u** is, in the feminine as in the masculine, the Umlaut; the declension in **i** is recognized by the absence of the Umlaut.

NEUTER IN &			1N <b>ja</b>		
Nom. Gen. Dat.	Sing.  ord  ords  ord  ord	Plur. ord ords ord ord	Sing. kynne kynnes kynne kynne	Plur. kynne kynnes kynne kynne	

The singular and plural of the neuter declensions are identical. The plural sometimes shows the case-sign -r, as klaede, klaeder,

NEUTER IN &									
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. ord ords ord ord	Plur. ord ords ord ord	Sing.  fåd  fåds  fåd  fåd	Plur. fåde fådes fåde fåde					

The termination e is chiefly used in the plural of words which originally had a short radical, though this radical may now be long. This e is remarkable as being the representative of the ancient termination u, and still more striking is the Umlaut in barn, child, plur. börn, an Umlaut which was originally caused by the termination u, and which was preserved after the ending vowel had been dropped.

The plural in er occurs in the nouns brijst, breast, brijster;

hốved, head, hốveder; stêd, place, stêder, &c.

Nouns in ja have frequently passed into the declension in a; those which remained faithful to their declension have, as in Swedish, the singular in e, and in the plural, if they form it at all, er, or the suffixed article; e. g. klaede, dress; plur. klaeder.

Weak Declension.

MASCULINE.		FEMININE.	Neu	TER.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	Sing. hâne hânes hâne hâne	Plur. hâner hâners hâner hâner	Like Masculine.	hierte	Plur. hierten hierten hierten hierten

Some weak nouns suffer apocope of the e in the singular, as aand, spirit; oxe, ox, has the plural öxene, öxne, not oxer, perhaps from a singular öxen of the strong declension.

## Examples:—

Strong. Masculine in a:—biörn, bear; dág, day; dál, dale; dóm, doom; droem, dream; fisk, fish; hest, horse; örn, eagle; skőv, wood, grove; himmel, heaven (Germ. himmel); engel, angel (Germ. engel); finger; fugl, bird (Germ. vogel); ravn, raven. In ja:—words ending in er: fisker, fisher, &c. In i:—bälg, hide; éd, oath; flód, river, flood; giest, guest; lem, limb; ret, right.

Feminine in a:—boeg, beech; borg, castle; brûd, bride; ég, oak; hiord, flock; skam, shame; siael, soul; sól, sun. In i:—

Feminine in a:—aln, all; boek, beech; êk, oak; húd, skin (Germ. haut); jord, earth; mán, mane; sjæl, soul; skám, shame; sól, sun; värld, world. In i:—boen, prayer; hielp, help; hind, hind; kraft, power; loen, reward (Germ. lôn); mín, mien; noed, need; ört, wort; sak, cause; tíd, time, tide. In u:—bók, book, plur. boeker; hand, hand, händer; nat, night, nälter; rôt, root, rötter; tand, tooth, tänder.

Neuter in a:—år, year; barn, child; bén, bone; berg, mountain; blåd, leaf; diur, animal (Germ. thier); folk, people, folk; glås; håf sea; hår, hair; lamb; land; lius, light; ord, word; sår, wound, sore; svärd, sword; tågel, horse-tail; namn, name; vatten, water; hufvud, head. In ja:—aerende, message; äpple, apple; hvéte, wheat; klaede, dress; kynne, kin; minne, memory; näste, nest; värde, worth.

WEAK. Masculine:—ande, spirit; biälke, beam; bôge, bow (Germ. bôgen); hâre, hare; hâne, cock; lunge, lung; mâne, moon; oxe, ox.

Feminine:—aska, ashes; boena, bean; hoena, hen; manniska, man (Germ. mensch); naesa, nose; qvinna, woman; stierna, star.

Neuter:—hierta, heart; nysta, glomus; oega, eye (Germ. auge); oera, ear.

Danish.

MASCULINE IN & IN ja		ī ja	IN I		in u		
Sing.  Nom. fisk Gen. fisks Dat. fisk Accus. fisk	Plur.  fiske fiskes fiske fiske	Sing. fisker fiskers fisker fisker	Plur. fiskere fiskeres fiskere fiskere	Sing.  vên  vêns  vên  vên	Plur. venner venners venner venner	Sing.  fôd fôds fôd fôd	Plur. födder födders födder födder

Some words in a suffer syncope in the plural, as *finger*, plur. *fingre*, whilst those in ja always preserve all syllables intact, and thus keep their declension distinct from that in a, hence *fisker*, plur. always *fiskere*, not *fiskre*.

The declension in i is characterized by its rejection of the Umlaut, that in u for introducing it in the plural.

FEMININE IN &		IN i		IN U		
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	sôl	sôle	sâg	sûyer	tand	tänder
Gen. Dat.	sôls sôl	sôles sôle	sâgs	sågers såger	tands tand	tänder tänder
Accus.	söl	sôle	sâg sâg	sager sâger	tand	tänder

### Middle High German.

## Strong Declension.

	MASCU	LINB.	FEMI	NINB.
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	blind-er	blind-e	blind-iu	blind-e
Gen.	blind-es	blind-er (ere) blind-en	blind-er (ere) blind-er (ere) blind-e	blind-er (ere)
Dat.	blind-em (eme)	blind-en	blind-er (ere)	blind-en blind-e
Accus.	blind-en	blind-e	blind-e	blind-e

	NEUTER.	
	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	blind-es	blind-iu
Gen.	bl <b>ind-es</b>	blind-er (ere)
Dat.	blind-em (eme)	blind-en
Accus.	blind-es	blind-in

The terminations may be dropped in all genders and cases.

The Umlaut before the inflexional iu (which stands for the Old High German ju) does not occur in the more ancient manu-

scripts.

Syncope and apocope of the e mute occur in the same manner as with the substantive. As to the terminations which have two vowels, as eme, ere, &c., the following general rule may be laid down: monosyllabic adjectives with a long radical preserve the first inflexional vowel and reject the second; those with a short radical preserve the second and reject the first after the consonants l, m, r, e.g. dat. sing. -eme, blind-em; but hol-me, bar-me, lam-me; fem. -ere, blind-er, but hol-re, bar-re, lam-re.

The thematic ja shows some trace of its existence in nom. -e, as boese, bad; enge, narrow; mitte, medius; naehe, near, &c. All adjectives of this kind have Umlaut if the radical is capable of it.

## Weak Declension.

Masc., fem., and neut.:—blind-e, blind-en, &c., the same as the weak declension of the noun. The rules applying to e mute are also the same.

Some adjectives are used only in the weak form.

The ancient suffix  $ja^1$  is preserved in the e of the nom. herte, hard, never harte; its inflexions are regular, and the Umlaut keeps its place throughout.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare the Old Teutonic adjective, p. 331 sqq.

#### Middle Dutch.

## Strong Declension.

Maso	Fran	NINE.	NEUTER.		
Sing.  Nom. blint Gen. blind-es Dat. blind-en Accus. blind-en	Plur. blind-e blind-re blind-en blind-e	Sing. blint blind-re blind-re blind-e	Plur. blind-e blind-re blind-en blind-e	Sing. blint blind-es blind-en blint	Plur. blint blind-re blind-en blint

The nominative singular is without any inflexion; all other cases of the three genders may be used without such.

The genitive and dative feminine and the genitive plural may end in -er, or -re (from ere); but the use of one or the other of these terminations does not, as in Middle High German, depend on the nature of the radical vowel, but on the consonant preceding the termination; thus re always after n, nd; er after d, t, g, k, &c.

The suffix ja is preserved in the nominative termination e; as dinne, thin;  $cl\acute{e}ne$ , small (Germ. klein).

## Weak Declension.

The terminations of the weak declension are, sing. -e, en, -en, en; plur. -e, -en, -en, -e, for the three genders.

These terminations differ from the Middle Dutch weak noun by using accus. sing. en for e, and nom. accus. plur. e for en; but they are identical with the terminations of the weak noun and adjective in Middle High German.

## English.

The adjective has no inflectional forms.

#### German.

# Strong Declension.

	MASCULINE.		MASCULINE. FEMININE.			NEUTER.	
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	blind-er blind-es blind-em blind-en	blind-e blind-er blind-en blind-e	blind-e blind-er blind-er blind-e	blind-e blind-er blind-er blind-e	blind-es blind-es blind-em blind-es	blind-e blind-er blind-en blind-e	

In the nominative and accusative singular and plural of all genders the uninflected form blind may be used.

The Middle High German is is lost. The Middle High German neuter termination -ez first was rendered by ep, next passed into -es, so that now the nominative and accusative neuter have the same case-sign as the genitive.

The genitive and dative singular feminine, and the genitive plural have always simply er for the Middle High German er,

re, er.

The rule of syncope is no longer of any great consequence. All polysyllabic adjectives should have syncope like nouns; e.g. nouns, gen. engels, fingers, regens; adjectives, gen. dunkels, keiten, elends; but the e is always preserved, hence dunkeles, &c. But the accusative singular masculine and the dative plural may have syncope, as dunkeln for dunkelen. Instead of the terminational e, however, they prefer to throw off the derivative e, as dunkler, heitrer, dunklen; the accusative singular masculine and dative plural have better dunkeln than dunklen.

ja. Many adjectives have dropped its last remnant, the nominative termination e, as mild, dürr, schoen, for milde, &c. In some adjectives it is preserved in the uninflected form, e.g. irre, enge, boese.

Dutch.

The strong and weak declensions are identical. (Grimm.)

	MASCULINE.		FEMI	NINE.	NEUTER.	
	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	blind-e	blind-e	blind-e	blind-e	blind-e	blind-e
Gen.	blind-en	blind-en	blind-e	blind-cn	blind-cn	blind-en
Dat.	blind-en	blind-en	blind-e	blind-en	blind-en	blind-en
Accus.	blind-en	blind-e	blind-e	blind-e	blind-e	blind-e

When without the article, the nominative and accusative masculine have the termination e, the neuter r, as goede wijn, witte wol, helder water. Is this r the representative of an ancient s?

The genitive forms of the above paradigm are hardly ever used, this case being commonly circumscribed with the preposition van. In the higher style of writing there is the old genitive preserved, namely masc. blind-es, fem. blind-er, neut. blindes, plur. blind-er.

Sometimes the nominative singular occurs uninflected: blind.

#### Swedish.

## Strong Declension.

In the singular the inflexions have disappeared, with the exception of the neuter termination -t, which is added to the preceding consonant of the stem; but it is omitted after the combinations tt, et, nt, st, ms, rs. Adjectives ending in a vowel take in the neuter tt; e. g. blå-tt, blew; fri-tt, free; rå-tt, raw. Those in n drop this consonant before the neuter t; e. g. liten, little, litet; tgen, own (Germ. eigen), eget.

The plural has the weak forms throughout.

### Weak Declension.

In the singular the masculine has in all cases the e, the feminine and neuter have a; in the plural all cases of the three genders have the termination a. Exceptionally, for instance when the adjective is used as a substantive, the old genitive singular still appears, e. g. masc. blindes, plur. blindas.

Syncope occurs in polysyllabic adjectives, as gamle, gamla, for

gammale, gammala.

The declension of the adjective in Old Swedish is deserving of special notice, as it is commonly used in the translation of the Bible.

## Strong Declension.

Masculine.		FEM	IININE.	NEUTER.		
Nom. bli Gen. bli Dat. bli	Sing. ind-er ind-s ind-om ind-an	Plur. blind-e blind-es blind-om blind-e	Sing. blind blind-s blind-e blind-a	Plur. blind-a blind-as blind-om blind-a	Sing. blind-t blind-s blind-o blind-t	Plur. blind-t blind-es blind-om blind-t

# Weak Declension.

	Singular.		PLURAL.
	Masc.	Fem. and Neut.	Masc. Fem. Neut.
Nom.	blind-e	blind-a	blind-a
Gen.	blind-es	blind-a <b>s</b>	blind-as
Dat.	blind-e	blind-a	blind-a
Accus.	blind-e	blind-a	blind-a

#### Danish.

The singular of the strong declension as in Swedish. The neuter -t is dropped after t (=tt), st, es; d and sk sometimes retain, sometimes drop it. Vowels take t (=tt Swed.), e.g. b/aa-t, blew; nig-t, new: some refuse it. Adjectives in en drop the n before t.

The plural takes the weak declension in e. Syncope as in Swedish, e. g. gamle. In Old Danish there are traces of perfect inflexions, masc. nom. sing. -er, gen. -s, accus. -en.

The weak declension has e throughout.

# THE VERB.

as are either of primary or secondary formation; that is, bal theme is formed directly from the root, or it is derived nominal or another verbal theme. Verbs belonging to mer class are commonly called primary verbs or stemthose of the latter, derivative verbs. Thus the Gothic our English to bear, are primary or stem-verbs, because the theme or stem balr-a-, for 'bir-a-, is formed directly from the bar; but the Gothic saltan, our English to salt, are ive verbs, because the Gothic theme or stem salt-a- is lly a nominal theme, the base of the Gothic and English 2lt, from which the verb is derived.

root is the first element of words, verbs as well as nouns: oot is not a verb; to become such it must be provided ersonal terminations, which are as indispensable to a verb case-signs are to a noun. The terminations of the perlay be added to the root immediately, or by means of one e connective letters; in the former case the root itself is bal theme, in the latter the theme must be formed by of a suffix. Thus, for instance, take the root as (to be) e termination of the 1st pers. sing. ma, weakened to mi, u will derive from these two elements the Sansk. as-mi, :  $\epsilon i \mu \iota = \epsilon \sigma - \mu \iota$ , the Lat.  $\epsilon \iota m = \epsilon s - \iota - m$ , the Goth. i - m, the o-m, the English a-m. But given the root bhar (to bear) e termination of the 1st pers. sing. mi, we require a conin order to join the latter to the former; and this conwe find in the suffix -a- which we add to the root bhar, us form the theme bhar-a-, and from this, by means of resonal termination, the 1st pers. sing. bhar-a-mi, I bear. same manner the Gr.  $\phi \epsilon \rho - o - \mu \epsilon \nu$  (we bear) is formed from eme  $\phi \in \rho$ -o- (o=a), root  $\phi \notin \rho$  (to bear), the Lat. veh-i-mus avey), from the theme veh-i- (i=a), root veh, and the baira (I bear), dropping the personal termination, from me  $bair-a-=^{\dagger}bir-a$ , root bar.

By means of the personal terminations we distinguish three grammatical persons in three numbers, the singular, dust and plural; so that the Aryan languages, in their most primitive type known to us, required nine personal terminations. These terminations are the roots of the respective personal pronouns, added to the root or theme of the verb, a formation which we might imitate by compounding the verb and our personal pronouns, as love-I, lore-thou, love-he, &c.

Another element in the formation of the verb which craves attention in proportion as it modifies the form of the verb, is the moved or modus. Let us take again the roots as (to be) and bhar (to hear). Of these roots we got the indicative by adding the personal terminations directly to the root or the theme developed from it. Now if we wish to express with the same roots the relations of any other mood, the optative for instance, we require a distinct suffix for this purpose. The root as and the termination mi, when joined, yield the 1st sing. indic. as-mi: in order to obtain the optative the Aryan languages avail themselves of the suffix -yu-, which they very properly place between the root or theme and the personal termination. Thus then we have the root as, the theme bhur-a-, and the personal termination mi, typical forms which may be modified but never suppressed. The suffix expressing the modus of the action takes its place between them, and thus we get the optative primitive as-ya-m (m for mi), Sansk. s-ya-m, Gr.  $\epsilon i\eta \nu = \epsilon \sigma - y\eta - \mu$ , Lat.  $\epsilon im = s - i\hat{c} - m = \dagger cs - i\hat{c} - m$ ; and of the theme primitive bhara- we get bhara-i-m (i=ya), Sansk. hilhr-iy-a, theme bibhar-, Gr. dido-in-v, theme dido-, Goth. pres, tense bairau = bira-i-u = bira-i-m, prim. bhara-i-m, theme barra-, prim. bhara-; perf. tense ber-ja-u, prim. bhabhar-ya-m, theme ber, prim. bhabhar -. As the optative by -ya-, so the subjunctive is formed by means of the suffix -a-, while the indicative has no mood suffix at all, and the imperative is merely the theme with the personal termination in the vocative, and may rightly be called a verbal interjection.

A third function to be performed by the verb is present; relations of time; the modified forms assumed for this purpose we call the tempora or temporary that is a sumed may consist in the relation of the relation. As to our Teutonic languages of motion are the present and the value to will be submitted to an examination of the relation to the relation to the relation to the relation of the relation to the perfect characterizes our I

classify according to this formation in Gothic as well as in the lenguages of the present day. The English steal, stole, stolen, the German stele, stal, stolen, are as expressive of their type, as the Anglo-Saxon stele, stal, stelon, and the Gothic stila, stal, stelum, stulans—all being examples of the perfect formed by the modification of the radical; while in the English love, I lov-ed, the German lieben, ich lieb-et-e, the Anglo-Saxon nerian, ner-e-de, the Gothic nasjan, nas-i-da, we have examples of the perfect formed by means of composition, an auxiliary verb being added to the root. Verbs belonging to the former class we call 'simple,' or with Grimm 'strong;' those of the latter 'compound,' or with Grimm 'weak'.'

Thus then we have to consider three elements which enter into the formation of every verb,—the Persons, the Moods, and the Tenses. Though the signs which originally expressed these different relations may in our modern Teutonic languages be partly or wholly obliterated, they are nevertheless of such supreme importance for the right understanding of the Teutonic verb as to render a detailed exposition absolutely necessary.

## FORMATION OF THE PERSONS.

#### 1st Person Singular.

The 1st person singular is formed by the suffix -ma, which is the base used in Sanskrit in the declension of aham (ego), the 1st person singular of the personal pronoun, where we find the ablative ma-t, the genitive ma-ma. In the perfect tense the a only remained; and as secondary suffix, in the optative for instance, it appears merely as -m. Hence we get of the root bhar (to bear), the primitive present tense babhár-a, perf. babhár-a. But at a very early period the a of ma was weakened into i, so that mi appears as the regular primary suffix, e. g. as-mi (sum, I am); the secondary suffix -m we have in as-ya-m (sim = sie-m). In the same manner are formed the Sansk. as-mi, and optative pres. sya-m; the Gr.  $\epsilon i - \mu = + \epsilon \sigma - \mu$  and  $\epsilon i \eta v = + \epsilon \sigma - \gamma \eta - \mu$ ; the Lat.  $sum = {}^{\dagger}es-\mu-m = {}^{\dagger}es-mi = as-mi$ , sim = sie-m = s-ya-m = as-ya-m. The last-mentioned language does not distinguish between primary and secondary suffix, but applies -m in all examples. This -m we find everywhere in the present subjunctive, as veha-m,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The active and the passive voice do not form distinct themes, but express their different relations merely by different modifications of the personal terminations.

and in the imperfect in -ba-m. The Gothic has the -m only in im = is-mi = as-mi; everywhere else it has dropped the termination of the 1st person singular.

#### 1st Person Plural.

As suffix of the 1st person plural the Ursprache used -man, secondary form -mas, e.g. pres. indic. as-masi (we are), optative as-ya-mas. In this termination grammarians see two pronominal roots ma + si combined. The former, as we have already stated, is the root of the 1st pers. sing.; si stands for ti, and ti is held to be derived from tra the base of the 2nd pers. sing. of the personal pronoun; and -masi consequently means 'I-thou,' 'I and thou, hence we. But the plurality of the 1st person may also include the ideas of I and he, I and ye, &c., combinations for which the primitive language no doubt had its special forms, which however in the course of time were lost, and of the different words expressing the different kinds of 'we' only one remained and took the place of the other forms as well. In Sanskrit the primary suffix is -mas, Ved. -masi, as i-masi, i-mas (imus), rahá-masi, rahá-mas (vehimus); the secondary suffix, -ma, the shortened form of -masi, as vahé-ma. The corresponding form in Greek is -μεν, that is, με with ν ephelkysticon, which succeeded in establishing itself for good; e.g.  $l-\mu \epsilon \nu = prim$ . i-masi. More primitive is the Doric - ues = primary -masi, secondary -mas, and is closely allied to the Latin -mus, more ancient -mos, as i-mus, rehi-mus. The Gothic has preserved nothing of this suffix but the m, e.g. riga-m (movemus) = prim. ragha-masi; the secondary suffix in Gothic is -m-a, that is, -m which was preserved from destruction by the final a supporting it, e.g. vigai-ma (moveamus) for 'vigai-m, prim. vaghai-mas.

## 1st Person Dual.

The plural m was modified into v, hence prim. vasi, Sansk. vas, perf. -va; e.g. pres. vaha'-vas, impf. a-raha'-va. In Greek and Latin this form is wanting; the Gothic drops the v of the primitive -vas, -rasi, and thus forms  $vigo's = {}^{\dagger}viga-as = viga-vas$ , prim. vagha'-vasi. The perfect has lost the termination and ends in the connective vowel, as ve'gu for ve'guv, from prim. vavagh-vas. The secondary -va corresponds to the plur. -ma, as vigai-va, optative pres. for vigai-v, from prim. vaghai-vas.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Scherer does away with the auxiliary a by contending that this a is the remainder of an ancient termination am, = Gr.  $d\nu$ , Sansk. u; in the pronoun also, e. g. hvata, he takes it as the remainder of an ancient am, as in Sansk. iddim.

## 2nd Person Singular.

The primitive theme of the 2nd person singular of the personal pronoun is tva, as we find it in the Sansk. tvat, tvam, &c. As a termination we meet it in its completest form in the suffix -ta of the perfect and the -dhi of the imperative. But as a rule is put for ti=tva, perhaps in order to keep the ti=tva of the 2nd person distinct from the ti=ta of the 3rd person. The perfect termination of the Sanskrit is -tha, e. g. chakar-tha (fecisti), root kar (facere),  $v\acute{e}t-tha$  (vidisti,  $o\emph{l}\sigma\theta a$ )=vaid-tha, root vid (to see, to know). The imperative ends in -dhi.

The Greek  $-\theta a$  after  $\sigma$  is the oldest Greek form of the primitive ta, e. g.  $ol\sigma - \theta a = Foi\sigma - \theta a = Sansk$ . vel-tha. The termination  $-\sigma\theta a$ , as in the subjunctive  $\beta d\lambda \eta - \sigma\theta a$ , optative  $\beta d\lambda o\iota - \sigma\theta a$ , indicative  $\tau l\theta \eta - \sigma\theta a$ , seems to be so formed that to the usual termination s (as in  $\xi \chi \epsilon \iota - s$ ) there was added the suffix -ta, the t of which following the spirant s was changed into the aspirate  $\theta$ . The Greek language is rather fond of the termination  $-\sigma\theta a$  in the conjugation of verbs; but the commonly used suffix is  $s = \sigma \iota$ , as we find it in the termination  $-\epsilon \iota s$  of the indicative, and  $-\eta s$  of the subjunctive, e. g.  $\phi \ell \rho \epsilon \iota s = {}^{\dagger} \phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon - \sigma \iota$ ,  $\phi \ell \rho \eta s = {}^{\dagger} \phi \epsilon \rho \eta - \sigma \iota$ ; the secondary suffix always -s, as in  $\ell - \phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon - s$ ,  $\phi \ell \rho o \iota - s$ .

The Latin perfect has -ii for -ia; the s preceding it belongs not to the termination but to the theme of the perfect. The i probably stands for an older ei, as tutudis-ti=tutudis-tei. The length of the i was perhaps adopted in analogy to the long i of the 1st person (vide infra). The imperative in -dhi is lost, but the emphatic imperative in -to(d), Ved. -tat, preserves the original ta in a very primitive form. In Latin, as in Greek, the common suffix is -s=-si, e. g. és=+es-s and +ed-s, prim. as-si, root as (to be) and ad-si, root ad (to eat), vehi-s, prim. vagha-si; optative

present sié-s, prim. as-yá-s.

The Gothic has -t for -ta, e. g.  $v\acute{a}is-t$ , prim.  $viv\acute{a}id-ta$ ; simple perfect nam-t, root nam (to take), prim.  $nan\acute{a}m-ta$ . But the common primary suffix is, as in Greek and Latin, -s= prim. -si, e. g. vigi-s, prim. vagha-si; is (thou art) = is-s, prim. as-si; also in the compound perfect, as nas-i-de-s, hab-ai-de-s,  $salb-\acute{o}-de-s$ . The secondary suffix is -s= prim. -s, e. g. vigai-s, prim. vaghai-s. Specially to be noticed is the rule according to which in Gothic a dental (d, t, th) which precedes the terminational -t of the 2nd pers. sing. of the perfect is changed into the sibilant -s, e. g.  $v\acute{a}is-t$  for  $v\acute{a}it-t$  (ologea),  $m\acute{o}s-t$  for  $m\acute{o}t-t$  (debes), qas-t for qap-t, perf. of qipan (to say). Thus the st gradually came to be considered the termination of the 2nd person, and invaded other verbs, e. g.

the Grains someter instead of a regular \*sai-so-t, root sa (to sow,) and inally a assumed the position of the older -s and -t in both the present and the perfect tense in all Teutonic languages, a fact we shall have to notice hereafter. This perfect in st may well be taken as an analogy to the Greek perfect in -oba.

## and PERSON PLURAL.

The reinctive selfx is -tasi, which consists of two root, namely the rise and election; whence -tasi = tra + tra, and means of the and them, that is, 'ye.' In Sanskrit it is represented by the reimany -the and the secondary -ta, e.g. present in the talk is, imperit s-thara-ta. The perfect has lost the constraint of the termination; hence babbra for babbra-a, for babbra-a, for babbra-a, for babbra-a. The Greek verb has -re throughout, as one-re, error, seconds: the Latin -tis = tisi = tasi, e.g. estin, and -a, a molecular, respective. The imperative in -total contains more instinctly even than the Ved. -tat twice the pronominal base runs the imperative in -te is, like the Greek -re and the Sanskrit -a, a shortened form. The Gothic has -th throughout, which is the remainder of an older -tha = -ta, e.g. present indicative - p. -i. optative rigal-th, perfect indicative végu-th, not say to move.

#### and Person Dual.

The suffix in Sanskrit is white, perf. athus (-thus a weakened from of white): secondary suffix -tam; which in Greek are represented by -tam; in Gothic by -ts (t preceding a resists Grown's law, c. g. present indic. baira-ts, optative bairaits, perf. indic. by -ts, optative bairaits. The -ts=prim. -tas, -tasi.

## 3rd Person Singular.

The primitive -i is a demonstrative root; as a verbal termination we find it weakened into -ti, secondary -t, e.g. present indic.  $m-1 = \cot t$ ,  $m = 1 + \cot t$  vehit), optative as-ya-t (siet, sit), which is vehit in the Lat. if the imperative suffix is tata, whence the Ved. the Lat. if the and the Gr.  $\tau\omega(\tau)$ . The Sanskrit perfect suffix is -i for -ti, as babbar-i for babbar-ta; the primary suffix -ti in as-i, baxa-t; the secondary -t in bbare-t, sya-t. The Ved. imperative ends in tat=ta-ta. Greek has in the perf.  $\epsilon=$  Sanskrit a for -ta, e, g,  $\lambda \delta \lambda o m - \epsilon = rir \delta i k-a$  for  $rir \delta i k-ta$ . But the primary suffix  $-\tau i = -ta$  is preserved in  $\delta \sigma - \tau i$ , and in the Dor.  $\tau i \theta \eta - \sigma i$  for  $\tau i$  in  $\tau i \theta \eta - \sigma i$  and the Homeric subjunctive  $\delta \chi \eta - \sigma i$ ,  $\lambda \delta \beta \eta - \sigma i$ . But the s of  $\sigma i$  is commonly dropped after the thematic vowel,

# THE PERSONS OF THE VERB IN THE TEUTONC LANGUAGES.

#### 1st Person Singular.

The suffix mi = ma of the primitive language is, as in Gothic, preserved in the termination -m in the Old Teutonic, and as in some of the Modern Teutonic languages; among the latter, English alone shows the primitive -m. It occurs chiefly in the various forms of the verb 'to be;' thus from the root as (to be) we have the Goth. i-m (=  $^{\dagger}$  is-mi = as-mi), the O. N. c=  $(= \cdot r - m = \cdot is - mi = us - mi)$ , the A.S. eo-m  $(= \cdot eor - m = \cdot is - mi = us - mi)$ mi', whence the Engl. am; from the root bu = prim. bhu (to be) there is the O. H. Germ. pi-m (comp. Sansk. bhar-a-mi), the O. S. Journ., the O. Fris. berm, the A. S. beorm, M. Dutch berm, but Middle and New High Germ. bi-n, and following their analogy N. Dutch ie-a. These are the only forms in which all the Teutonic languages have preserved the primitive suffix; but there are a few other words with the termination -m in which Old High German appears more primitive than Gothic, namely tw - I do', also in the O. S. do-m, do-n; ga-m (I go), sta-m (I stand . The derivative themes in  $\vec{e}$  and  $\vec{o}$ , perhaps following the analogy of the mentioned verbs, also take in Old High German the suffix -w in the 1st sing., as hape-m, salbo-m.

## 1st Person Plural.

The primitive suffix -metsi appears in its completest form in the Old High German -me's, while Gothic and Old Norse have reduced it to a single -m, which m the Middle and New High German and Dutch have converted into n, while the Saxon dialects have dropped this termination altogether and put in its stead, Old Saxon that of the 3rd, Anglo-Saxon that of the 2nd person plural; e. g. O. H. Germ. find-a-mes, Goth. find-a-m, O. N. finn-v-m, Germ. find-e-n, O. S. find-a-d, A. S. find-a-8, by the side of which we have the uninflected plural in the Engl. we find. In the preterite and subjunctive the Saxon dialects adopt for the 1st person the termination -n of the 3rd person plural, e. g. Old Saxon subjunctive find-a-n, preterite fund-u-n, Anglo-Saxon subjunctive find-e-n, preterite fund-o-n. From this fact we may perhaps explain a curious phenomenon which we observe in Early English. It is this,—that in Layamon we find the plural throughout formed with the termination -th, in the Ormulum

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare gedô-m, do-am, gesea-m, geseo-m (I see) in the Durham Book.

Exammonly with the termination -en, or -n¹, while in Old English again the former, in Middle English the latter predominates, until New English discards them both, though at the dawn of our modern period -en was still in favour. The form in -th and that in -n were kept distinct in Anglo-Saxon; but both were often dropped when the pronoun succeeded the verb, as 'ne gá ge' for gá's, 'hwät ete we' for eten. The subjunctive rarely had any termination in Old English, and even the indicative drops the ending not unfrequently, as 'we kalle' for kalleth, 'thei luf' for lufeth. From all this it becomes evident that at an early period a confusion set in, which was finally solved by the total dismissal of all terminations in the subjunctive as well as in the indicative plural.

#### 2nd Person Singular.

The primitive suffix -ti and its representative -si appear in the Old Teutonic languages in the present tense originally as -s, in the perfect as -t. Thus in the present tense Old High German has, like Gothic, -s; e.g. O. H. Germ., O. S., and Goth. kilp-i-s, Goth. hab-ai-s, O. H. Germ. hap-ê-s, even A. S. häfe-s (thou hast), though in the last-mentioned dialect this form is rare, and occurs chiefly when the verb is succeeded by a pronoun, as spreces bu (loqueris), leornas bu (discis), and in contractions between verb and pronoun as gesiistu (vides), cuedestu (dicis). The Old Norse, and Swedish and Danish also, have the termination -s, but in the favourite shape of r. In a few words, however, all the Teutonic languages prefer the still more ancient suffix -t to its modified form -s. This takes place chiefly in the verbs commonly called Præterito-Præsentia, which have the form of the perfect though the meaning of the present (comp. Gr. olda, Lat. memini). Thus Goth. kan-t (potes), parf-t (eges), skal-t (debes), mag-t (potes), &c.; O. H. Germ. darf-t, scal-t, mag-t, but can-st for †can-t (vide infra); O. S. tharf-t, scal-t, mah-t, but can-st, far-man-st; A. S. pearf-t, but can-st, geman-st, dear-st; O. Fris. skila, skal-t. Though the verb 'will' often ends in a vowel in the 2nd singular, it also has the form wil-t in the Old Teutonic dialects: M. H. Germ. sol-t, darf-t, wil-t. Among the Modern Teutonic dialects English has preserved the ancient forms shal-t, wil-t, while Modern German has given way to the corruption into st, kann-st, will-st, soll-st, &c. The regular suffix of the perfect 2nd singular was -t, which however we find intact only in Gothic and Old Norse, while Old High German, Old Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, and Old Frisian

<sup>1</sup> The Ormulum has christneph and christnenn.

have the vocalic termination i, or weakened c. Some gummarians consider this i or e as having come over together with the plural Ablaut from the subjunctive, others take it as the connective vowel which remained behind after the termination had been dropped. This termination is greatly modified by a law which we have already mentioned under Gothic, and according to which the stem of a verb ending in a dental changed this dental into a before the termination -t of the perfect. Thus the Gothic gas-t for gap-t, and in the preteritopræsentia mos-t for mot-t, rais-t for rait-t. Now in imitation of these forms Old High German has already the form can-o-!, where the stem does not end in a dental, but the s has simply been interpolated, and thus the present tense, following the analogy of the præterito-præsentia, adopted at as its regular termination in Anglo-Saxon, Old Frisian, and all the Middle and New Teutonic dialects (only Middle Dutch has commonly s). While in Gothic and Old High German the compound perfect ends in the 2nd singular as the present in -s, the other dialects, such as Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon, which adopted a vocalic termination for the simple perfect, imported the termination -# in the compound perfect too, and finally this termination was generally adopted in the 2nd sing. present and perfect, indicative and subjunctive.

#### 2nd Person Plural.

The primitive suffix -tasi has been curtailed in the same manner as the primitive termination of the 1st plural. It appears in Gothic, Anglo-Saxon, Old Frisian, and Old Norse, as -th, in Old High German as -t, in Old Saxon as -d. In Early English it either reigns supreme, invading all the persons of the plural, or yields, together with the 1st, to the usurpation of the termination -n of the 3rd person. (Compare the 1st and 3rd person plural.) It is peculiar that this -n is still preserved in the 2nd pers. plur. of the Swedish verb, while it has been dropped in the 3rd pers. to which it originally belonged.

#### 3rd Person Singular.

Corresponding to the primitive suffix -ta, Gothic -th, we find -th in the Anglo-Saxon and Frisian dialects, -d in the Old Saxon, and -t in the High German and Dutch. The root as (to be) forms the 3rd person everywhere by means of the ancient -t, which is protected by the preceding s, hence Gothic is-t, Germ. is-t (he is); the Engl. is=as has dropped the terminations and

is reduced to the simple root. We have irregular forms in the Norse and English languages. The Old Norse, and, following it, Swedish and Danish, have -r in the 3rd pers. sing., a termination which stands in no relation whatever to the legitimate suffix which undoubtedly in Old Norse too was originally -th, perhaps in the form of -8. This suffix, however, was at a very early period expelled and its place taken by that of the 2nd pers. sing., where we find, in accordance to Old Norse phonetic laws, -r for -s, which -r took possession of the 3rd pers. sing. as well.

A peculiar course was adopted in Modern English, where the primitive -th (though still used in poetry) had to give way to a new comer in the shape of -s. This s has no legitimate claim whatever to its position, and it is very difficult to account for its introduction. It makes its appearance in the Durham Book already, where we find forms such as forgefes, does, singes, geheres; Layamon and the Ormulum refuse it admittance. In Old English it is used side by side with -th; Chaucer himself applies -th exclusively, but the scribes of the Northern Strother he makes to use the form in s, as it gas, In Modern English Ben Jonson still prefers the falles, has. -th. but Shakespeare the -s, while Spenser uses either one or the other on rhythmical and euphonic grounds. Some suppose this s to be the result of Norse influence and the representative of the Old Norse -r in the 3rd (or 2nd) pers. sing., others take it to be merely a corruption of the original Anglo-Saxon termination The former opinion can hardly be maintained when we consider that Old Norse forms, where they are imported at the expense of native elements, are taken in 'ready made,' not in their primitive shape. When the Norsemen came into contact with the Saxons they had no doubt lost all consciousness of the fact that the -r of the 3rd person of their verb was originally s. converted according to the law of rhotacism 1. We consider it far more likely that the terminational soriginated in a corruption of the legitimate th, first in pronunciation. It is a wellknown fact that foreigners who have not made themselves masters of English orthoppy always pronounce the th, especially at the end of words, more or less like s, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that the introduction of s was a kind of accommodation the natives made to foreign weakness, a being the nearest approximation which a Norman, for instance, could make to the sound of th 2.

Concerning the conversion of s into r (Rhotacism), see the phonetic laws under the respective consonants.
 Marsh, The Origin and History of the English Language, &c., p. 216.

### 3rd PERSON PLURAL

The primitive -anti, -nti, appears only in the Gothic -ind, -d, and the Old and Middle High German -nt; in all the other dialects it has been lost. But the secondary suffix -s, which in Gothic and Old High German already was used for the present subjunctive and the perfect indicative and subjunctive, we find again in all the other dialects, not only for the 3rd person, but forming the plural throughout. In Early English it often contested the place with the legitimate th in the present indicative, and so successfully that at the dawn of our modern period it resisted the levelling tendencies of the age, until it shared the fate of most inflexions and disappeared together with the other terminations of the plural. Modern German supplanted the primitive -wt, which was still used in Middle High German by the secondary suffix -n, which we find also in Modern Dutch; Swedish and Danish have, like English, dropped the termination, which in Old Norse had already been vocalized, in the present indicative into a, perfect u, subjunctive i.

#### THE DUAL.

The different persons of the dual do not claim any further exposition here, because they appear in Gothic only, and have so far already received our attention elsewhere.

# THE PERSONS OF THE MEDIUM OR MIDDLE VOICE.

The primitive medial forms we find in none of the Teutonic languages, save the Gothie, and we shall therefore consider them so far only as they occur in the mentioned language. The personal terminations of the medium arose from the respective pronominal root being twice added to the verbal theme. These compound terminations were, for the singular 1st -mámi, 2nd -xiiv, 3rd -táti; 3rd plur. -ntanti. Derived from these primitive forms were -mai, -xai, -tai, -ntai, as preserved in the Sanskrit subjunctive, and the Greek terminations -µai, -σai, -τai, -ντai.

#### IST SINGULAR.

This form is wanting in Gothic, and is replaced by that of the 3rd person, a defect which shows that at the time when Ulfila translated the Bible the medial form had in Gothic also begun to collapse.

#### and SINGULAR.

Primary suffix -za for -sai, e.g. baίτα-za=Gr. φέρε-σαι, Sansk. bhara-sé, prim. bhara-sa(s)i. Secondary -zau, e.g. baίταi-zau. The latter suffix seems to stand for a more ancient sám, in the same manner as 1st sing. optative perfect bér-jau for a more ancient bâr-yam, so that sám comes from sa, as Sansk. -tám (3rd sing. imperative medial) from ta.

## 3rd SINGULAB.

Primary suffix -da = -tai, e. g. baira-da = Gr.  $\phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon - \tau \alpha i$ ; prim. bhara-ta(i)i. Secondary -dau = tam (comp. 2nd sing. zau = sam), e. g. optative bairai-dau, prim. bharai-tam; imperative baira-dau, Sansk. bhara-tam.

## 3rd PLURAL.

Primary suffix -nda = -ntai, e. g. baíra-nda = Gr. φέρο-νται, Sansk. bhara-nté, prim. bhara-nta(nt)i. Secondary -ndau = -ntám (comp. 2nd and 3rd sing.), e. g. optative present baírai-ndau, prim. bharai-ntám; imperative baíra-ndau, Sansk. bhara-ntám.

#### 1st and 2nd PLURAL.

Wanting in Gothic, and replaced by the 3rd plural which we have just examined.

# FORMATION OF THE MODI (MOODS).

The mood-suffix is placed between the verbal theme and the personal termination. The indicative and imperative have no mood-suffix, and are therefore, strictly speaking, no modi. The imperative is only the vocative form of the personal termination.

#### THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The theme of the subjunctive mood is formed by means of the demonstrative suffix -a, which, where an a belonging to the temporal theme precedes, is contracted with it into d; e. g. prim. present theme bhara-, subjunctive theme bhara-a-= bharā-. Thus Latin vehā-m, vehā-s, vehā-t for veha-a-m, &c. (the short vowel of the Latin subjunctive is a correption of a later date); Gr.  $\phi \epsilon \rho \phi$ ,  $\phi \epsilon \rho \eta$ -s==  $\phi \epsilon \rho \eta$ - $\sigma \iota$ ,  $\phi \epsilon \rho \eta$ ==  $\phi \epsilon \rho \eta$ - $\tau \iota$ . The subjunctive mood being totally absent in the North-European languages (Teutonic and Slavonic), we need not submit it to a detailed discussion.

#### THE OPTATIVE MOOD.

The theme of the optative mood is formed with the suffix ormunity and ated into -ya-, which also yields the base of relative ye noun. If it succeeds upon a temporal theme of in a the suffix is weakened into i. The optative through has the see adary personal suffixes. Examples:-Prince theme is. Sansk. es. Gr. eo, Lat. es, Goth. is-hence pres eptative ist sing. prim. as-ya-m, Sansk. s-ya-m, Gr. ciny="y -- Lat. 6 - = + - - . Goth. sijau = +s-ija-m = +is-ija-m. Th primitive theme areas is in Gothic extended into assiy-as, how s :-, which form is treated as a theme in a and assumes the usual personal terminations of the optative, as 2nd pers. ijii grd v ... 1st pint. prim. as-ya-mas, Sansk. s-ya-ma, Gold r - - . Theme prim. it: u-, Sansk. bhara-, Gr. φέρε-, Gold. b ::-: hence present optative 1st sing. prim. bhara-i-m, Sank 'i -. -. Gr con-air'. Goth. bairau= bira-i-m. 2nd sing. prim. Sansk. Sinces, Gr. ocposes, Goth. baire-th. Thus then we have in the Gothic optative present the optative form in i, because the present theme ends in a; but the perfect theme ending in the final of the root, the optative perfect is termed by means of the suffix -ya-; e.g. perfect theme ber (of ber, to bear, perfect optative 1st sing. ber-ja-u, prim. bhabhary :- a. and sing. . e -e . prim. bhabhar-ya-s.

## THE MODI IN THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

The aptative in the Teutonic languages, which is commonly called a numetive or subfunctive, is formed on the same rules as the Gethie, or, we had perhaps better say, derived from a primitive Teutonic form to which the Gothic bears the closest resemblance. It is, in most of the Teutonic dialects, ancient and modern, and in its greatest integrity, preserved in the root as to be, which invariably supplies the present subjunctive, except in the Modern Norse languages, and in Early and Modern English. The subjunctive theme or stem is in Old High German and all the Low German dialects si, in Old Frisian and Old Norse se, which may be explained by reference to the Gothic. The wof the Gothic sijan being dropped, the remainder appears in a contracted form in the si and sc of the other dialects, the former presupposing perhaps the vocalization of the Gothic sij into sii and hence si, and the latter the elision of the j in Gothic sija, thus producing sia and hence se. Thus then we have in

Ist and 3rd sing. of the present subjunctive the O. H.

M. O. S., A. S., M. H. Germ., M. Dutch, N. Dutch si; the

Fris. and O. N. se; the N. H. Germ. sei (N. H. Germ. ei=

H. Germ. i), the other persons being only modified by the

sonal terminations in several of the dialects mentioned. In

Saxon (Layamon and the Ormulum) the subjunctive si is

dually supplanted by the subjunctive beo of the root bhs,

ich existed in Anglo-Saxon already, and which in the shape

be became the sole form of the present subjunctive in Old

glish, and remained so in Middle English and New English. The subjunctive of other verbs forms its theme in the present nse by means of é (Old Saxon d), in the perfect by means of i. hese thematic vowels may again be explained by a reference to the Gothic. Take the Gothic present theme baira- which in he optative yields the form bairau= bira-i-m, and baira-i-s, the Suffix ya being weakened to i on account of the preceding a of the theme. The thematic a and the suffixed i combine in Old High German and other dialects to produce the form  $\ell$ , e.g. and sing. ber-é-s, a contraction which corresponds to that in the Sanskrit bhar-ê-s compared to the prim. bhara-i-s. Saxon a which stands in the place of the é was undoubtedly originally long, a length which was lost in the course of time, just as it was in Anglo-Saxon, Old Frisian, Old Norse, and the New Teutonic dialects, where it can no longer be distinguished from the thematic e; so that in the Anglo-Saxon, Old Frisian, find-e, the Old Norse find-i, we may simply see the thematic form (a weakened to e or i), or the e(i) may be considered as the correption of the optative  $\ell(=a+i)$  which we still find in Old High German. Thus again in Middle High German the subjunctive and indicative forms are identical; in New High German a distinction is kept up in so far as the e in the subjunctive termination may not suffer syncope, as indicative du sag-st, but subjunctive du sage-st, where the thematic e(=a) is preserved.

The vowel of the perfect subjunctive theme is i in Old High German, Old Saxon, and Old Norse, the length being preserved only in the former two dialects; the i is flattened to e in Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian as well as in the Modern Teutonic dialects, if they have preserved any vowel at all. The Old High German i corresponds to the Gothic ei 1, and the Gothic ei to the primitive -ya-; hence we have for the Gothic 2nd sing. funth-ei-s, the O. H. Germ. fund-i-s, O. S. fund-i-s, O. N. fynn-i-r,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare the Table of Gradations, p. 24.

A. S. and O. Fris. fund-e, N. H. Germ. fund-e-st. In these of the preterrite the i or e cannot be considered to be the cond thematic a because all the Old Teutonic dialects rethe a of the present theme in the perfect, as Gothic present being, hilps. sinds. perf. stal. bar, halp, fund, a practice ke in the Modern Germ. stile. helfe, finde, perf. stall, half, The vowel then which is added in the perfect subjunction ancient and modern dialects must be the representative optimitive optative suffix -ps.

## TEMPORA TENSES).

# FORMATION OF THE PERSENT THRUE.

What we call the Present Tense in the Arvan languages prises a number of irrmations morphologically distinct one another. These different forms must originally have haderent significations as well; for, as Schleicher rightly obsectifierence of form without a difference in the meaning is gether incomeivable. We find, moreover, in the extant gauges accessomally different functions performed by the difference of the present tense, though it is true that this voil functions has mostly disappeared, while a variety of two scenariosis.

The personal terminations are ablief to the theme in a manufactural the indicative and subjunctive assume primar, many secondary suffices.

In the subsequent list we enumerate those themes only? On the has in Amanon with the Auguste languages.

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es-t; 2nd plur. es-tis, 1st. plur. s-u-mus,=†es-u-mus=†es-

prim. as-masi.

coot ed (to eat), 3rd sing. es-t from ed-(t)i; in the same es-tis, &c. But edo, edimus belong to the themes of II. In their extant form sta-t and da-t belong to Class I, sugh originally to Class IV. (Comp. Sanskrit and Greek, IV.)

II. To the simple pure root is added the suffix -a-.

This formation probably occurs only with roots which have radical a. The suffix a of the theme, that is, the final, a has

Residation in the 1st singular and plural.

Primitive. Root bhar (to bear); present theme bhar-a, 1st sing. bhar-a-mi, 2nd bhar-a-si; 1st subjunctive bhar-a-d-mi, hence bhar-d-mi; optative 1st bhara-i-m. In the same manner are formed the present themes pat-a-, root pat (to fly, to fall); vart-a-, root vart (to turn). To this formation belong most of the derivative verbal themes, especially those in -aya-, e.g. theme viad-aya- (to make known), root vid (to know), 1st sing. vaid-ayd-mi.

Sanskrit. Root tud (to strike), present theme tudá-, 1st sing. tudá-mi, 1st plur. tudá-masi. Root bhar, present theme bhará-, 1st sing. bhará-mi. Derivative verbs in -aya-, e.g. root vid, present theme védaya- (to make known), 1st sing. védayá-mi.

Greek. Root  $\phi \epsilon \rho$  (to bear), present theme  $\phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon -$ ,  $\phi \epsilon \rho \rho -$ , 1st sing.  $\phi \epsilon \rho - \omega(-\mu)$ , 1st plur.  $\phi \epsilon \rho - \rho - \mu \epsilon \nu$ . Derivative verbs in -aya-: nominal theme  $\phi \rho \rho -$ , verbal theme  $\phi \rho \rho - \epsilon \gamma \rho -$ , 1st plur.  $\phi \epsilon \rho \rho \hat{\nu} \mu \epsilon \nu$  =  $^{\dagger} \phi \rho \rho - \epsilon \gamma \rho - \mu \epsilon \nu$ , prim. bhar-aya-masi; nominal theme  $\tau \iota \mu \dot{\eta}$ , verbal theme  $\tau \iota \mu - a \gamma \rho -$ , 1st plur.  $\tau \iota \mu \dot{\omega} \mu \epsilon \nu = \tau \iota \mu a \gamma \rho - \mu \epsilon \nu$ .

Latin. Root veh, prim. vagh (to move, convey), theme veh-i-, 1st sing. veho=\(^{\psi}vehô-mi\), prim. vaghd-mi; vehi-t, prim. vagha-ti, 1st plur. vehi-mus, prim. vaghd-masi. (Conjugation in -ĕre.) In Latin and Greek the 1st plur. differs from that of the preceding languages in not having the gradation of the suffix -a-. The derivative suffix -aya- is represented by \(^{\ellip}, i, d\), as mon\(^{\ellip}tis\), \(^{\psi}moneitis\) = \(^{\psi}mon-eyi-tis\), prim. \(^{\ellip}nan-aya-tasi\). (Conjugations in -are, -\(^{\ellip}re\), \(^{\ellip}re\).

Gothic. The formations in -a- are very frequent in Gothic, chiefly with primary themes<sup>2</sup>. The radical a is with few exceptions weakened to i. It is not weakened in 1st sing. fara=fara, prim. fara-mi, root far (to go); graba-, root grab (to dig); slaha-, root slah (to slay); valda-, root vald (to govern). It is weakened

Gradation of vowels, p. 22 sqq.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Concerning primary and secondary themes, see pp. 167, 168.

to i in giba-, root gab (to give); brika-, root brak (to break); hilpa-, root halp (to help);—weakened to u in truda- (perf. trap, plur. trê-dum), root trad (to kick). To the themes in -a-belong also the verbs with gradated radical (commonly second gradation, and the gradation remaining throughout), e.g. háita-, to be called (O. Engl. to hight, Germ. heißen); hvopa-, to boast; leta-, to let; slépa-, to sleep; stáuta-, percutere (Germ. stoßen). The final a of the theme is treated according to the primitive law; so that corresponding to the *a* in the primitive language we have *a* in Gothic, corresponding to the short a in the primitive we have the weakened form i in the Gothic language: e.g. 1st sing. viga for †viga, prim. vagha-mi; 2nd vigis for †vigi-si, prim. vagha-si; 1st plur. vigam for viga-mas(?), prim. vagha-masi; 2nd vigith for †vigi-þis(?), prim. vagha-tasi; 3rd viga-nd for viga-ndi, prim. vagha-nti. In the 3rd plural the a is preserved by two succeeding consonants of the termination. The 1st dual vigos arises from vigaas, viga-vas (Goth.  $a+a=\delta$ ), prim. vaghd-vasi; the 2nd dual viga-ts seems as if it were derived from a more primitive form with the thematic vowel gradated or lengthened.

The primitive -aya, used for the formation of derivative verbs, appears in Gothic in three distinct forms: (1) the first a dropped, ja; (2) the y of aya dropped, makes  $a+a=\delta$ ; (3) the final a

dropped, ai.

1. The verbs in ya (corresponding to the Latin in î) form the present theme in ja, ji, or ei, and all other themes in i; e.g. present theme nasja-, nasji- (to save), perf. theme nasi-, hence present 1st sing. nasja, 2nd nasjis, 1st plur. nasjam, &c., perf. 1st sing. nasida. Instead of ji we have ei after a long radical, e.g. theme sôkja-, 2nd sing. sôkeis, but the combination ja always remains intact, as 1st sing. sôkja, 1st plur. sôkjam.

2. Verbs in  $\delta$  (=prim.  $\hat{a}$ ) can easily be traced to nominal themes from which they are derived; thus from theme leika-, adj. ga-leiks (similar, like), we get 1st sing. ga-leik $\delta$  (compare Germ. ver-gleiche), 3rd sing. ga-leik $\delta$ , 1st plur. ga-leik $\delta$ m for †leika-j $\hat{a}$ -mi, †leika-ja-ti, †leika-j $\hat{a}$ -masi; from fiska-, fisks (fish), 3rd sing. fisk $\delta$ b (piscatur). In leikaj $\hat{a}$ mi the j was dropped first,

and a + a make  $\hat{o}$ .

3. The verbs in ai (= Latin  $\hat{e}$ , Greek  $\epsilon\hat{e}$ ) for the primitive -ayahave this derivative form only in the 2nd and 3rd sing. and 2nd plur., and in the perfect; but in all other persons of the present, and in the optative of the present throughout, they assume the form of primary themes, so that they have always two themes, one for the former, another for the latter forms; e. g. the theme habai-, of the root hab (to have), makes 2nd sing. habai-s, 3rd habai-b,

and plur. habai-p, perf. habai-da; the theme haba- forms 1st plur. haba-m, 3rd haba-nd.

III. The root has first gradation and takes the suffix -a-.

Primitive. Root dik (to show), present theme daika; root bhug (to bend), bhauga-; root sru (to flow), srava-.

Sanskrit. Root budh (to know), 3rd sing. bodha-ti, 1st plur. bdhá-mas.

This formation very frequent. Root our (to flee), Greek. present theme φευγ-ε, φευγ-ο-, plur. φεύγ-ο-μεν, φεύγ-ε-τε; root  $\lambda$ ιπ (to leave), theme  $\lambda$ ειπ-ε,  $\lambda$ ειπ-ο, plur.  $\lambda$ είπ-ο-μεν,  $\lambda$ είπ-ε-τε; root  $\lambda a\theta$  (to be hid), theme  $\lambda \eta \theta$ -o-, 1st plur.  $\lambda \dot{\eta} \theta o - \mu \epsilon \nu$ .

**Latin.** Root duc (to lead), theme duc-i=douc-i-, prim. dauk-a-, ard sing. douc-i-t. Thus also dic-i-t = deic-i-t, root dic (to say);

f id - i - t = f e i d - i - t, root fid (to trust).

Gothic. This formation occurs regularly with primary themes, containing the radical i or u, e.g. root gut (to pour), 1st sing. giuta, and giuti-s; part. pret. pass. gut-ans; root grip (to seize, gripe), 1st sing. greipa, 2nd greipi-s, part. pret. pass. grip-ans.

IV. The root is reduplicated, and, if ending in a vowel, assumes first gradation. The gradation is subject to the same rules as under II.

**Primitive.** Root da, present theme da-da, 1st sing. da-da-mi, 2nd da-dd-si, 1st plur. da-dd-masi, subjunctive 1st sing. da-daá-mi, optative da-da-yá-m; root dha (to put, to set, to do), present theme dha-dha-; root ga (to go), present theme ga-ga-f.

Sanskrit. Root bhi (to fear), 1st sing. bi-bhê-mi; root da (to give), 1st sing. da-dd-mi, 1st plur. da-d-mas; root dha (to put), 1st sing. da-dhd-mi, 1st plur. da-dh-mas. Peculiar to the two last-mentioned verbs is the loss of the thematic a in the ungradated forms.

Greek. The vowel of the reduplication is i; the plural has no gradation. Root δο (to give), theme δι-δο-, 1st sing. δί-δω-μ, 1st plur. δί-δο-μεν; root στα (to stand), theme i-στα- for si-sta-, ist sing.  $\ell$ - $\sigma \tau \eta$ - $\mu$ , ist plur.  $\ell$ - $\sigma \tau a$ - $\mu \epsilon \nu$ ; root  $\theta \epsilon$  (to put), theme τι-θε-, 1st sing. τί-θη-μι, 1st plur. τί-θε-μεν; root πλα (to fill), ist sing.  $\pi \ell - \mu - \pi \lambda \eta - \mu i$ ; root  $\pi \rho a$  (to burn), ist sing.  $\pi \ell - \mu - \pi \rho \eta - \mu i$ (comp.  $\pi \lambda \dot{\eta} \sigma \omega$ ,  $\pi \lambda \dot{\eta} \theta \omega$  and  $\pi \rho \dot{\eta} \sigma \omega$ ,  $\pi \rho \dot{\eta} \theta \omega$ ). The two last-mentioned verbs add a nasal to the reduplication, and thus connect the themes under V with those under IV.

Latin. This formation is rare, and recognizable in but few fragments, and even in these not without the suffix -a-; e. g. gignit for f gi-gen-i-t, prim. ga-gan-a-ti (comp.  $\gamma i\gamma(\epsilon)vo$ - $\mu ai$ ); root gan

(to beget); sistit, i. e. si-sti-t, prim. si-sta-ti, root sta (to stand); serit, i. e. †si-si-t, prim. si-sa-ti, root sa (to sow); bi-bi-t, root si,

prim. pi, pa (to drink).

Gothic. This formation is, strictly speaking, wanting in Gothic; for the only fragment this language possesses is a theme with the suffix -a-, in which, moreover, the reduplicational syllable is nasalized: 1st sing. gagga, 3rd gaggi-th, from a prim. 1st ga-n-g-d-mi, 3rd ga-n-g-a-ti, root ga (to go). In Old High German we find a few more remains of this formation; namely from the root ga (to go), 1st sing. gd-m, prim. ga-gd-mi, 2nd gd-s, 3rd gd-t, 1st plur. gd-més; from the root sta (to stand), 1st sing. std-m, prim. sta-std-mi, 2nd std-s, &c.; root ta (to do), 1st sing. tuo-m, prim. dha-dhd-mi; but these again have lost the reduplication, and the gradation crept into the plural too; in their extant form therefore they more properly belong to Class I.

V. To the root is added the suffix -na- and the vowel of the suffix gradated in the 1st sing.

Primitive. Root star (to scatter, to strew), 1st sing. star-námi, 1st plur. star-na-masi. This suffix, as well as -nu-, are demonstrative roots, and occur frequently in the formation of nominal themes.

Sanskrit. Root grabh, grah (to seize), 3rd sing. med. grh-na-té, grh-nî-té; root yu (to join, jungere), 1st sing. yu-nā-mi, 1st plur. yu-nî-mas. na in the ungradated forms is weakened to -nî.

Greek. Root  $\delta d\mu$  (to tame), theme  $\delta d\mu$ -va-, 1st sing.  $\delta d\mu$ - $v\eta$ - $\mu\iota$ , 1st plur.  $\delta d\mu$ -va- $\mu\epsilon v$ ; root  $\pi \epsilon \rho$  (to sell), 1st sing.  $\pi \epsilon \rho$ - $v\eta$ - $\mu\iota$ . This form often occurs in combination with the suffix -ya- (Gr. -o-), as  $i\kappa$ - $v\epsilon$ -o- $\mu a\iota$ , I come. The a of na is treated in the same manner as the final of the themes in -a-, e.g. root  $\pi \ell$  (to drink), theme  $\pi \ell$ - $v\epsilon$ -,  $\pi \ell$ -vo-, 1st sing.  $\pi \ell$ - $v\omega$ , 2nd  $\pi \ell$ - $v\epsilon$ - $\iota$ s, 1st plur.  $\pi \ell$ -vo- $\mu \epsilon v$ . Almost exclusively peculiar to Greek is the formation of the present theme with the suffix - $av\epsilon$ -, -avo-, prim. ana, e.g. root  $i\kappa$  (to come), theme  $i\kappa$ -dvo-, 1st plur.  $i\kappa$ -dvo- $\mu \epsilon v$ ; root av, av (to increase) av  $\ell$ -dvo- $\mu \epsilon v$ . If the radical is short, the nasal m is inserted between it and the final of the root; e.g.  $\lambda a\beta$  (to take), theme  $\lambda a$ - $\mu$ - $\beta$ -dvo-, 1st plur.  $\lambda a$ - $\mu$ - $\beta$ -dvo- $\mu \epsilon v$ .

Latin. The a of the suffix -na- is treated as the final of the themes in -a-. This formation occurs chiefly after vowels and roots ending in r, e.g. root li (to smear), 3rd sing. li-ni-t; root si (to let), si-ni-t; root cre, cer (to separate), cer-ni-t; root spre, sper (to despise), sper-ni-t. On a more ancient stage of the language we find da-n-unt, root da (to give), prodi-n-unt, &c.

The a of the suffix -na-1 is treated as in the cognate languages. Exclusively belonging to the present, we find -naonly in the theme frih-na- from the root frah, to ask (Germ. fragen), in which the a of the root is weakened to i; 1st sing. fraik-na, and fraik-ni-s, 1st plur. fraik-na-m, perf. sing. frak, plur. freh-n-u-m. From these present themes there has been developed in Gothic a class of derivative verbal themes (with passive functions) which gradate this na into no in the perfect tense, so that we have a theme in -na- for the present, a theme in -nô- for the perfect, which moreover follows the system of the weak conjugation; e.g. present theme veihna- (to be sanctified), from veih(a)s (holy). Present sing. 1st veih-na, 2nd veih-ni-s, 3rd veih-ni-th, 1st plur. veih-na-m, &c., going exactly as fraihna (Latin cerno); but the second theme is veih-no-, whence the perfect veih-no-da; thus also fullnan (to be filled), from fulljan (to fill); andbundnan (to be loosened), from andbindan (to loosen); usluknan (to be opened), from uslukan (to open); af-dumbna (to be dumb, to be silent), from dumba (dumb).

VI. The demonstrative -na- or its shortened form -n- is infixed to the root itself before the final consonant.

Primitive. It is difficult to decide whether this infix occurred in the primitive language, though from its occurrence in all the cognate languages it would appear that it did. The pronominal root-na-, which first was used as a suffix, seems to have gradually crept into the root itself and to have become the infix of which we now treat, so that to the Latin ju-n-g-i-t (root jug, Sansk. yuj, to join) corresponds a primitive yu-n-g-a-ti, which originally may have been yug-na-ti. This infix also occurs in nominal themes, as the Gr.  $\tau \acute{o}-\mu-\pi-avo-v$ , root  $\tau \acute{v}\pi$  (to strike); Goth. du-m-b-s (dumb), root dub, from which also daub-s (deaf). Compare also the Goth. ma-na-g-a (many), root mag, prim. magh (to grow) with the Lat. mag-nu-s, from a primitive magh-na-, as the Gothic from a primitive ma-na-gha-.

Sanskrit. Root yuj (to join), present theme yu-na-j-, yu-n'-j-, 1st sing. yu-na-j-mi, 1st plur. yu-n'-j-mas; root much (to loosen), present theme mu-n'-cha-, 1st sing. mu-n-ch-a-mi.

Greek. This formation is very rare: one example we have in σφίγγω, root σφιγ (to squeeze), comp. σφίγ-μα, σφιγ-μός.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A near relation to this is the suffix -nu- which Schleicher discards from the Teutonic languages; but Delbrueck (in Deutsche Lautverschiebung, Zacher's Zeitschrift für Deutsche Philologie, i. p. 13) recognizes it in Goth. brinnan (to burn), where he takes nn as the assimilation of nv, and this nv for nu; bri, the root corresponding to a Sansk. bhar.

Latin. Chiefly with roots ending in a consonant; e.g. root tag (to touch), ta-n-g-i-t; pag (to fasten), pa-n-g-i-t; fig (to form), fi-n-g-i-t; fud (to pour), fu-n-d-i-t; rup (to break), ru-m-p-i-t.

Gothic. 1st sing. sta-n-da, root statk, stad, an extension of the simple root sta (to stand); perf. stôtk. The form gagga also might be mentioned here, if we assume a compound root gag, formed by means of reduplication from the simple ga (to go). But the explanation given under IV is preferable, because we find nasalized roots in Greek and Sanskrit also. To this formation belong the following verbs, though they form their perfect like the derivative verbs by means of composition; 1st sing. brigga, I bring (Goth. gg = ng, gk = nk; comp. the Greek), perf. brak-ta, root brag (the radical is weakened to i in the present); thagkja, I think (comp. A. S. thencan, Germ. denken), and thugkja, I opine (comp. A. S. thincan, Germ. dünken, Engl. me-think-s), perf. thah-ta, thuh-ta, root thak, thuk. In the present they have both besides the infix -n- the suffix -ys. (See II.)

VII. To the root is added the suffix -ya-, the a of which is treated like that of the themes in -a-.

Primitive. Root svid (to sweat), theme svid-ya-, 1st sing. svid-yá-mi, 2nd svid-ya-si, &c., like bhar-á-mi.

Sanskrit. Root nah (to bind), pres. theme nah-ya-, 3rd sing. nah-ya-ti; root mad (to be intoxicated), 3rd sing. mád-ya-ti (with the radical gradated).

Greek. A favourite formation; the ya occurs in various modifications. (1) The y of ya remains as i; root  $\delta a$  (to divide), theme δα-ιε-, prim. da-ya-, 1st sing. δα-ίο-μαι; root φυ (to beget), Æol.  $\psi v - i\omega$ . (2) The y is transplanted as i into the preceding syllable, that is, into the root, e.g. root rev (to stretch), 1st sing. τείνω for <sup>†</sup>τεν-yω; root βa, prim. ga (to go), theme βa-ν-yo-, 1st sing.  $\beta a l \nu \omega$  for  $\beta a - \nu - y \omega$ ; root  $\phi a$ , prim. bha (to shine), hence with the suffix -n the root  $\phi a \nu$  (to appear, to show), 1st sing. φαίνω for 'φαν-yω. In the last two cases we have the suffixes n and va. that is, Class II and V combined. (3) The y joins the final of the root, and this combination appears in the form of \( \cdot \) or  $\sigma\sigma$ ; but if the final consonant of the root is  $\lambda$ , the  $\gamma$  is assimilated to it; e.g. root δδ (to smell), 1st sing. δζω for †δδ-yω; thus also  $\phi v \lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \phi v \lambda \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\tau \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \kappa - y \omega \omega$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \sigma \omega = {}^{\dagger} \tau \alpha \omega - y \omega \omega$ <sup>†</sup>λιτ-yoμαι, root λιτ (to implore), κορυσσω = <sup>†</sup>κορυθ-yω; but  $\sigma \tau \epsilon \lambda \lambda \omega = {}^{\dagger} \sigma \tau \epsilon \lambda - y \omega$ . (4) The y disappears between two vowels,

**25**,  $\phi v - \omega$ , comp. Æol.  $\phi v - l\omega$ , in which the spirant y is vocalized into i.

Latin. The y of the suffix ya is vocalized into i, but dropped where another i succeeds, e.g. root cap (to take), 1st sing. cap-io, 1st plur. cap-i-mus for  $^{\dagger}$  cap-yi-mus; in the same manner fug-io, root fug (to flee),  $aio = ^{\dagger}$  ag-yo, root ag (to say). ero for  $^{\dagger}$  eso,  $^{\dagger}$  eso-io; erunt for  $^{\dagger}$  eso-unt, eso-iunt, have dropped the i of the primitive -ya- before the o and u. The last two forms assumed in Latin, as in other Aryan languages, the meaning of the future—a phenomenon which we observe also in the form -bo, used as the termination of the future, which stands for a more ancient  $^{\dagger}$  bio, bu-io (comp. Æol.  $\phi v$ -( $\omega$ ), root bu, fu, prim. bhu (to be). The suffix -ya- occurs in derivative verbs, as statuo for  $^{\dagger}$  statuio, from a prim. statu-yd-mi, in the same manner as the Gr.  $\mu$ e $\theta v \omega$ , prim. madhu-yd-mi; moneo, prim. mana-yd-mi.

Gothic. Root frath (to understand), present theme frath-ja-, 1st sing. frath-ja, 2nd frath-ji-s, 1st plur. frath-ja-m; perf. froth; thus also 1st sing. hlahja from the root hlah (to laugh). If the root ends with a, ya is changed into ia, e.g. root sa (to sow). 1st sing. sa-ia, 3rd sa-ii-th, 1st plur. sa-ia-m; prim. 1st sing. sa-yd-mi, 3rd sa-ya-ti, 1st plur. sa-yd-masi; in the same manner vaia, root va (to breathe, to blow, Germ. wehen), laia, root la (to scold). Perf. of sa is sái-só, of va, vái-vô, of la, lái-lô. All these are stem-verbs and to be kept distinct from the derivative verbs in -aya-. (See Class II.)

## VIII. To the root is added the suffix -ta-.

Sanskrit, and very likely the Primitive language too, did not make use of this suffix.

Greek. A frequent formation; the suffix ta occurs as  $-\tau\epsilon$ -,  $-\tau \epsilon$ -, chiefly after labials, e.g. root  $\tau \nu \pi$  (to strike), 1st plur.  $\tau \nu \pi$ - $\tau \epsilon$ 

Latin. This formation occurs in but few cases, chiefly where the root ends with a guttural; e. g. nec-ti-t (necto, I bind), Sanskrit root nah (nectere); thus also pec-ti-t, flec-ti-t, plec-ti-t.

Gothic. One single trace of this formation is found in the Old High German root flaht, to weave (Germ. flechten).

# THE FORMATION OF THE PRESENT THEME IN THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

## I. The theme consists of the simple, pure root.

To this formation belong, as in Gothic, the present themes of the root as, to be, which take the personal terminations without any thematic or connective vowel; e.g. A. S. eo-m = †cor-m, O. N. e-m = †er-m, Goth. i-m = †is-m = †is-mi, prim. as-mi, Engl. a-m; Goth. is-t, prim. as-ti, Germ. is-t; Goth., A. S., Germ., s-ind (they are) = †is-ind, prim. as-anti; O. H. Germ., O. S., si-s, Goth. si-jai-s, prim. as-ya-s, optative present of as, to be. In the same manner the root bû, prim. bhu, to be, forms in Anglo-Saxon the present 1st beo-m, 2nd bi-st, 3rd bi-s, O. S. biu-m, bi-st, O. Fris. be-m, bi-st, O. H. Germ. pi-m, pi-s, Germ. bi-n, bi-st, A. S. bû, to dwell, inf. bûan, 2nd bŷ-st, 3rd bŷ-s. To these belong also the O. H. Germ. gâ-m, stâ-m, tuo-m, A. S. 1st gâ, 2nd gæ-st, 3rd gæ-st; 1st dô-m, 2nd dæ-st, &c. (See IV.)

## II. To the simple pure root is added the suffix -a-.

This formation is one of the most frequent in the Teutonic languages, occurring in almost all the stem-verbs. As in Gothic it weakens the radical a to i; but the pure radical is preserved chiefly in those verbs which gradate the a into  $\delta$  in the perfect; hence the root far, to go, has, for its present theme, far-a- (perf. for); thus also the present themes scap-a-, create; grab-a-, dig; stand-a-, stand; svar-a-, swear. The radical is weakened to i in the present themes, Goth. gib-a-, stil-a, hilp-a; and again the i is weakened to e in the A.S. stël-e-, hëlp-e-, and in all modern dialects, e. g. Germ. stêl-e-, helf-e-, Dutch stêl-e-, help-e-. modifications of the radical in the different ancient and modern dialects are discussed in the chapter which treats on the strong conjugations; but as to the a of the theme we have to mention that, as in Gothic, it is preserved in the 1st sing. and 1st and 3rd plural; weakened into i in the 2nd and 3rd singular. But while Gothic weakens it also in the 2nd plur, the other dialects preserve the a intact. In the Anglo-Saxon, Old Frisian, and in the modern dialects, the i is further weakened into e, and in the latter the thematic a, where it occurs at all, is represented by the weakened form e.

The themes in -aya- which occur chiefly with the derivative or so-called weak verbs may appear in three distinct forms, or as three distinct conjugations in Old High German as in Gothic,

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## III. The root has the first gradation, and takes the suffix -a-.

To this class belong, in the Teutonic languages, all stem-verbs which have the radical i or u; e. g. Gothic root skin (to shine), present 1st sing. skeina, O. H. Germ. scinu, O. S. skinu, A.S. scine; root grip (to seize, gripe), Goth. greipa, O. H. Germ. krifs, O. S. gripu, A. S. gripe, O. Fris. gripe, O. N. grip; root gut (to pour out, fundere), Goth. giuta, O. H. Germ. kinzu, O. S. giuta, A. S. geóte; root kus (to choose), Goth. kiusa, O. H. Germ. chiusa, O. S. kiusu, A. S. ceóse, O. Fris. kiuse.

# IV. The root is reduplicated and, if ending in a vowel, assumes the first gradation.

We have already remarked that this formation is almost totally wanting in Gothic, and we may now add that none of the ancient Teutonic dialects has anything more than mere rudiments or fragments of themes of this class. To these belong the O. H. Germ. gā-m, stā-m, and tuo-m, of the roots ga (to go), sta (to stand), ta (to do), which yield the forms 1st sing. gā-m, stā-m, tuo-m, from the prim. ga-gā-mi, sta-stā-mi, dha-dhā-mi, and sing. gā-s, stā-s, tuo-s, 1st plur. gā-mes, stā-mes, tuo-mes, for the prim. ga-ga-masi, sta-sta-masi, dha-dha-masi, the long vowel having crept irregularly into the plural too. Here we must also mention the A. S. gā, gæ-st, gæ-ð, plur. gā-ð; dō-m, dċ-st, dċ-ð, plur. dō-ð. But, as we said before, these verbs as they now are before us belong more properly to Class I.

# V. To the root is added the suffix -na-.

It occurs in Old High German and the other dialects, except Gothic, only in one particular form, e. g. O. H. Germ. gifregin' ih (fando accipio), O. S. fregnan (fando accipere).

VI. The demonstrative -na- or its shortened form -n- is infixed in the root itself before the final consonant.

To this class belongs, through extension of the root, the verb to stand as it occurs in the different dialects, derived from the primary root sta, a secondary root stath, stad, which, with the infix, becomes sta-n-d; Goth. standa, perf. stôp; O. H. Germ. stantu, stuont; O. S. standu, stôd; A. S. stande, stôd; Engl. I stand, I stood. In the same manner we derive from the simple root ga, by means of reduplication, the compound root gag, which, with the infix -n-, forms the present theme ga-n-g-a in the different dialects; from the root brag (to bring) the present theme bri-n-g-a- (with the weakening of the radical into i), in-

finitive O. H. Germ., A. S. bringan, O. S. brengjan, O. Fris. brenga. Thus we have, by the side of the Goth. fahan (to catch), and kahan (to hang), in O. H. Germ. and A. S. fa-n-g-an, ka-n-g-an; from the root pak, dak, the Goth. pagkjan='pa-n-k-jan, O. H. Germ. de-n-k-an, O. S. the-n-k-jan, A. S. pe-n-c-an, O. N. pe-n-k-ja, O. Fris. tha-n-k-a or the-n-zja, Germ. de-n-k-en, Engl. thi-n-k; from the root thuk, duk. Goth. pugkjan='pu-n-k-jan, O. H. Germ. du-n-k-an, O. S. thu-n-k-jan, A. S. py-n-c-an, O. Fris. thi-n-szja, Germ. dü-n-k-en; but O. N. pykkja (in nk the assimilated to the k).

## VII. To the root is added the suffix ja, prim. ya.

Verbs belonging to this class are stem-verbs, and must not be confounded with the derivative verbs in ja, prim. aya. can easily be kept distinct, because the former take the suffix ja only in the present and form the perfect like other stem-verbs, the latter preserve the derivative suffix throughout the conjugation. In the present tense, of course, both classes are inflected alike, so that at first sight it would appear as if the strong verbs in ja had adopted something of the weak verbs in ja, wherefore Grimm considers them of a mixed character. In Gothic we have already mentioned frapjan (to understand, to know), hlahjan (to laugh); we may add hafjan, to lift (Germ. heben); rapjan, to reckon; skapjan, to create; skabjan, to damage, to scathe (Germ. schaden), which make the perf. in 6, as frop, hloh, hof, &c.;—bidjan (to ask, to bid), has the perf. bab, bebum, perf. part. bidans. In Old High German we have to mention bittan, to ask (Germ. bitten); sizzan, to sit (Germ. sitzen); liggan to lie (Germ. lîgen); heffan, to lift (Germ. heben); seffan, to understand; swerran, to swear. The doubling of the final consonant of the root is the result of the assimilated j, as bittan for bitjan, &c., the j being still preserved in some forms such as bitju, pitju, swerju; hefjan, swerjan; imperative piti, sizi, &c. In the verbs pittan, liggan, sizzan, it is owing to the influence of the j that the radical i was not weakened into e, and to the same influence must be ascribed the Umlaut of a into e in the verbs swerran, seffan, heffan. Old Saxon has biddjan, liggjan, sittjan, hebbjan, suerjan, af-sebbjan, animadvertere. The gemination which occurs in most of them is not, as in Old High German, organic, that is, caused by the assimilation of the j to the final consonant; it is dropped in the 2nd and 3rd sing. present and in the imperative; e.g. biddjan, 2nd sing. bidis, 3rd bidid, imperative bidi, &c. In the perfect they make, bad, badun, lag, lagun, &c. Anglo-Saxon has, like Old High German, commonly assimilated the j

to the final consonant of the root; hence biddan, sittan, liegen, history, reprehendere; picyan, to touch; hebban, seerjan. They are in the present infected like the weak verbs in ja; except seerjas, which has not assimilated the thermatic ja, makes in the 1st pers. seer-ie—ig. 2nd seer-a-it, 3rd seer-a-it, 1st plus. seerja-it; imperative seers. O. Fris. bidda, bidja; lidza, lidza, lidza, to lie A.S. liegan; sitta. to sit; seerja, to swear. In the grd sing of lidza the gemination is dropped; hence leith, lith; O.N. seergis, to riot, glutire Germ. schwelgen); erja, to plough, arare; bidsa, lidza, sitja, pinja, to get; blikju and blika, to glitter; seiga, to deceive; rikja, to yield (Germ. weichen); seegis, to sing: sijanja, to sling. projicere; tiggja, to chew; geyis, to bark; desja, to die; hefja, hnefja, to squeeze; hkaja, to shake. The present throughout is conjugated in the fashion of the weak verbs.

## VIII. To the root is added the suffix -ta-.

As we had occasion to observe before, there is no sign of this formation in Gothie; the only trace we find in the Old High German root flah! = flah-t, to weave (Germ. flechten); present 1st sing. flihtn. 2nd flihti-s, 1st plur. flihtl-a-mes, perf. flaht. Compared with plec-to, Gr.  $\pi\lambda \acute{\epsilon}s-\omega$ , the compound character of flah-t becomes soon apparent, the suffix t=ta having crept into the root itself. The t not affected by Grimm's law on account of the preceding h.)

## FORMATION OF THE PERFECT THEME.

As long as the primitive Arvan language preserved its most simple character, roots kept the place of words; roots consequently were used as verbs or verbal themes, whether present or perfect. On this stage the language possessed no other means to express the various relations of an action, but that of repetition, that is, the repetition of the root, called Reduplication. Thus then all temporal relations also were originally expressed by means of the reduplication of the root. In order to form the perfect of the root vid, to see, the root was reduplicated into vid vid; to the perfect theme thus formed were added the personal pronouns, and thus was obtained the 1st sing. vid vid ma, vidi; 3rd sing. vid vid ta, vidit. On the secondary stage of the development of the language the three roots were agglutinated into one

vid' might rightly be called the reduplication, and 'ma' and ta' terminations. The language having thus passed through the first, or radical, and second, or agglutinative, to the third, or inflexional, stage, further changes and modifications took place which tended more emphatically to distinguish the primary root, as the bearer of the meaning or sense of the word, from the secondary roots, expressing merely the relations of the former. This distinction the language brought about by means inherent in itself, that is, by strengthening the primary root, and by curtailing and weakening the secondary roots. The former was strengthened by the gradation' of the radical vowel, i, o, or u, which gave rise to the following scale:—

Primitivadical		I	. G	radat	ior	۱.	I	I. 6	radation.
a				aa					âa
				ai					âi
*				au		_	_		âu

This gradation always took place in the perfect theme, except where the root ended in two consonants succeeding a, and it is a peculiar phenomenon that as a rule the second gradation was applied. Thus then the root vid, to see, appears in the perfect as váid; kru, to hear, as kráu; ruk, to shine, as ráuk; da, to give, as  $d\hat{a}$ ; sta, to stand, as  $st\hat{a}$ ; ad, to eat, as  $\hat{a}d$ . The secondary roots, on the other hand, were curtailed in various ways. reduplicational root commonly lost the final consonant (except when the primary root consisted of but one consonant and one vowel), so that the reduplicated perfect of the root vid was vivaid, of ruk, rurauk, but of da, dada, of sta, stasta, of ad, adad. The perfect theme being thus completed, all now required was the personal termination. The terminations, as we have seen before, were supplied in the demonstrative roots added to the theme as suffixes. These suffixes also, when the language had entered on the inflexional stage, were gradually more and more curtailed and weakened down, until, in the course of time, their original character was hardly perceptible. In the primitive language however these modifications were not yet so great as to obliterate the radical character of the personal suffixes; nay, in one instance the suffixed pronoun gained the better over the primary root. This remarkable phenomenon occurs in the perfect plural, where the long bisyllabic termination resisted all change and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Concerning the gradation of vowels, see p. 22 sqq.

even prevented the gradation of the primary root. It must have existed in the primitive language, before Goths, Greek, and Indians had separated, for we observe it equally in the different languages of the Aryan tribe. The following facts will sufficiently illustrate the phenomenon to which we refer. The primitive and Sanskrit root vid, to see, appears in Greek as fid, and if the root itself occurred in Gothic it would be vit. We meet it in the form of the perfect, but with the meaning of the present, 'I know,' a meaning which it has acquired in Sanskrit, Greek, and Gothic alike. The perfect theme of this root, according to the rules mentioned before, must be in the primitive viváid, which in Sanskrit we find as véd-, in Greek où-=foù-, in Gothic váit-. Its course through the different persons will appear from the following paradigm.

		Primitive.	Sanskrit.	Greek.	Gothic.
Sing.	2nd	vivåid-(m)a vivåid-ta vivåid-(t)a	vêd-a vêd-tha véd-a	old-a for Foida old-ta old-t	váit váis-t for vait-t váit
Plur.		virid-masi virid-tasi vivid-anti	vid-ma rid-a vid-us	ίσ-μεν for F <b>ιδ-μεν</b> ίσ-τε ίσ-ασι	vit-u-m vit-u-th vit-u-n

Though it lies beyond the limits of this book to enter upon a detailed exposition of the reduplicated perfect in the cognate languages, a short sketch will nevertheless be necessary in order to make us more fully to appreciate this part of grammar, which is of such high importance in the Teutonic languages also. The laws of reduplication, which in the primitive language were no doubt very simple, became in the different cognate dialects more numerous and complicated; but our sketch shall comprise merely those most important for our purpose.

#### Sanskrit.

The first syllable of a root (i.e. that portion of it which ends with a vowel) is repeated, e.g. budh (to perceive), bu-budh; but bhú (to be), ba-bhú. Aspirated letters are represented in reduplication by their corresponding unaspirated letters; e.g. bhid (to cut), bi-bhid; dhu (to shake), du-dhu. Gutturals are represented in reduplication by their corresponding palatals, h by j; e.g. kuṭ (to sever), chu-kuṭ; gam (to go), ja-gam; has (to laugh), ja-has. If a root begins with more than one consonant, the first only is reduplicated, e.g. krus (to shout), chu-krus; kship (to

throw), chi-kship. If a root begins with a sibilant, followed by a tenuis or aspirated tenuis, the tenuis only is reduplicated; e.g. stu (to praise), tu-shiu; stan (to sound), ta-stan; sthá (to stand), ta-sthá<sup>1</sup>.

The reduplicated perfect theme has commonly the first gradation of the radical yowel, e.g. tud (to strike), tu-tôd-; kar (to make), cha-kâr; bhid (to cleave), bi-bhêd. Final vowels may have first or second gradation, e.g. dha (to place), da-dhâ-; stu (to praise), tu-shtâu-; hri (to be ashamed), ji-hrâi-. In the plural and dual active, and in the medium, the gradation does not take place. Roots in a sometimes drop the radical, as tan (to stretch), ta-tnirê-. Roots in a in the 1st and 3rd pers. sing. have âu, ved. commonly â, e.g. da, da-dâa, ved. da-dâ.

#### Greek.

The reduplicational syllable does not repeat the radical, but supplants it by  $\epsilon$ , probably in analogy to the great number of roots with the radical  $\eta = \text{prim. } d$ . Of two consonants only one is admitted in the reduplication, e. g.  $\pi \lambda a \gamma$  (to beat),  $\pi \dot{\epsilon} - \pi \lambda \eta \gamma - a$ ;  $\phi a \nu$  (to show),  $\pi \dot{\epsilon} - \phi \eta \nu - a$ . This also happens in a few archaisms, as  $\mu \nu \eta = man$  (to think, remember),  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} - \mu \nu \eta - \mu a \iota$ . But as a rule the reduplicational syllable repudiates a combination of two initial consonants, as  $\kappa \tau \epsilon \nu$  (to kill),  $\dot{\epsilon} - \kappa \tau o \nu - a$ .

The Attic reduplication is either the doubling or repetition of the whole root, as  $\delta\delta$  (to smell),  $\delta\delta-\omega\delta-a$ ;  $\delta\pi$  (to see),  $\delta\pi-\omega\pi-a$ ; or, in analogy to the preceding case, the doubling of the first part of the root, as  $\delta\lambda\epsilon\iota\phi$  (pres.  $\delta\lambda\epsilon\iota\phi\omega$ , I anoint; a primitive root with a prefixed),  $\delta\lambda-\eta\lambda\iota\phi-a$ .

The radical vowel has either the first or the second gradation. First gradation:  $\lambda a\theta$  (to be hid),  $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} - \lambda \eta \theta - a$ ,  $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} - \lambda \ddot{a}\theta - a$ ;  $fa\gamma$  (to break),  $f\dot{\epsilon} - f\bar{a}\gamma$ ;  $f\epsilon\rho\gamma$  (to do, to make),  $f\dot{\epsilon} - f\rho\rho\gamma - a$ ;  $\phi\nu\gamma$  (to flee),  $\pi\dot{\epsilon} - \phi\epsilon\nu\gamma - a$ . Second gradation:  $f\rho\alpha\gamma$  (to break),  $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\omega\gamma a = ^{\dagger}\epsilon - f\rho\omega\gamma - a$ ;  $\lambda\iota\pi$  (to leave),  $\lambda\dot{\epsilon} - \lambda o\iota\pi - a$ ;  $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\nu\theta$  (to come),  $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\lambda - \dot{\eta}\lambda\sigma\nu\theta - a$ . The gradation does not take place in the plural, just as in Sanskrit; compare  $\dot{\sigma}\dot{\sigma}a$ , plur.  $\dot{\iota}\sigma - \mu\epsilon\nu = ^{\dagger}f\iota\dot{\sigma} - \mu\epsilon\nu$  with Sansk.  $\dot{\nu}\dot{\epsilon}da$ , plur.  $\dot{\nu}id - ma$ ;  $\pi\iota\theta$  (to trust),  $\pi\dot{\epsilon} - \pi\sigma\iota\theta - a$ , 1st plur. pluperf.  $\dot{\epsilon} - \pi\dot{\epsilon} - \pi\iota\theta - \mu\epsilon\nu$ ;  $\tau\lambda a$  (to suffer),  $\tau\dot{\epsilon} - \tau\lambda\eta - \kappa a$ , plur.  $\tau\dot{\epsilon} - \tau\lambda\alpha - \mu\epsilon\nu$ ;  $\beta a$  (to go),  $\beta\dot{\epsilon} - \beta\eta - \kappa a$ , plur.  $\beta\dot{\epsilon} - \beta\alpha - \mu\epsilon\nu$ ;  $\delta\iota$  (to fear),  $\delta\dot{\epsilon} - \delta\iota\sigma - \kappa a$ , plur.  $\delta\dot{\epsilon} - \delta\iota - \mu\epsilon\nu$ . This law however is perceptible only in a few old formations; as a rule most verbs follow a new formation which has grown up in analogy to the compound aorist, and thus assumed for the perfect theme a final a which

originally was foreign to it. Thus then we get the so-called regular forms: e. g. sing. 1st λέλοιπα-(μ) for 'λελοιπ-(μ)α, 2nd λέλοιπα-ς for 'λελοιπ-τα; 1st plur. λελοίπα-μεν for 'λελιπ-μεν, κα. There are in general many new formations in the Greek perfect, of which we mention one more, that which contains inorgain aspiration, known in grammar as Perfectum Primum, e. g. δει (to bite), δέ-δηχ-α; φυλακ (to guard, watch), πε-φύλαχ-α; βλαβ (to hurt, injure), βέ-βλαφ-α. Thus however only the gutturals and labials, not the dentals are aspirated.

Another phenomenon must be mentioned, which very likely originated in a very remote period, because we shall observe the same in Latin and even in some of the Teutonic languages; we mean the perfect in -s-. Vocalic themes have not rarely in the perfect med. an increase of the root by an additional -s, e. g. 220

(to sail), πέ-πλευ-σ-ται.

#### Latin.

The final of the perfect stem is preserved in but few obsolcte forms, as fazo= fac-10= fe-fac-10, and also fazim-fac-sim= fefac-sim. In all other forms it takes an i as the final vowel of the perfect theme, which i is obscure in its origin, as fee-rin= for -nin = fefici-nem = fefaci-nem. In the 1st sing. perf. we often read ei for i which very likely is the remainder of a more ancient -eim; in the 3rd sing. it, ét=eit, as dedét, fuét, fuit, dedeit, redieit. Both the 1st and 3rd sing, as well as the 1st plur. are based upon the theme in i; e.g. 1st sing. tu-tud-ei, 3rd litud-ei-f, 1st plur. tu-tud-i-mus, perfect theme tu-tud-i-, root lad, to strike; but in the 2nd sing, and plur, we have a perfect theme in -ω- (comp. the Greek perf. in -ω-, as πλυ, πέπλευ-σ-τω, and the perf. in -r- in Old High German and Old Norse); e.g. and sing. tu-tud-is-ti1, plur. tu-tud-is-tis. In the termination serund of the 3rd pers. plur, the long e is of later origin; the more ancient form was -evant, as 'fec-ev-nut='fec-is-outi, with the theme in -is-, which also occurs in the perfect infinitive feeis se, and in the optative plupers, fec-is-sem. Final a disappears before the i or is of the perf. theme; as root da, perf. theme de-d-i-, ded-is-; root sta, perf. theme ste-t-i-, ste-t-is-,

The perfect in Latin has commonly lost the gradation of the root, and even replaced it by the weakened form of the radical vowel. The reduplication is mostly dropped; but where it appears it does so the permittive form.

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nt gradation we possess in scdbi for \*sce-scdb-i; fugi for g-i; fui, from a more ancient \*fuvi = \*fu-fouvi; thus also rui, &c.; tu-tud-i (in Priscianus), for tu-toud-i, root tud, to e. At an early epoch of the language, therefore, there may been in Latin, as in Sanskrit, Greek, and Gothic, the lar alternation of long and short vowels in the singular and al, as 3rd sing. tu-toud-ei-t, 1st plur. tu-tud-i-mus. Later the short vowel penetrated, just as it did in the Teutonic ruages, from the plural into the singular.

After what we have stated we may arrange all the different enomena we observe in the formation of the perfect in Latin der three heads: namely, we find either (1) the reduplication reserved, or (2) the reduplication simply dropped, or (3) the uitial of the root lost and then the vowel of the reduplication entracted with that of the root. (The vowel thus formed is of

Course always long.)

# 1. Reduplication preserved.

The laws of reduplication are very simple in Latin, because very primitive in their origin, and may be brought under two distinct heads. (1) The initial consonants are unaltered in the reduplicational syllable, even the combinations st, sp, and sc; but in these the root itself when reduplicated loses the spirant s, e.g. spond (to vow), spo-pond-i; scid (to cleave), sci-cid-i; sta (to stand), ste-t-i, for spo-spond-i, sci-scid-i, ste-st-i. (Comp. Gr. **1-στη-μ**= si-sta-mi, and Sansk. ti-shthd-mi.) (2) The reduplicational syllable preserves the radical vowel; but roots in a have always the reduplication with e, e.g. can (to sing), ce-cin-i; tag (to touch), te-tig-i; pag (to fasten) pe-pig-i; man (to think), me-min-i; parc (to spare), pe-perc-i. The radical o always remains in the reduplication, e.g. Sansk. root mard, to rule, Latin present mord-eo (I bite), mo-mord-i; posc, to demand (=porsc, Sansk. prachh = prask), po-posc-i. In the more ancient style (Nonius, Gellius) also me-mord-i, pe-posc-i. Radical i remains in the reduplication, e.g. scid (to cleave), sci-cidi; bi-bo (I drink, root pi=pa), bi-bi: radical u remains, e.g. tud (to strike), tu-tud-i; pug (to sting), pu-pug i; curro (I run, root probably kar), cucurr-i; archaic (Gellius) pe-pug-i, ce-curr-i.

## 2. Reduplication dropped.

Examples:—tuli=†te-tuli; scidi=sci-scid-i (not for the later sci-cidi), fidi=†fi-fidi. The loss of the reduplicational syllable chiefly occurs in composition, e.g, con-cidi, ex-puli, but ce-cidi, pe-puli. Further examples are fügi = fu-fügi, rüpi, füdi,

vidi='vi-veid-i, prim. vi-vaid-a, vici, scabi. But these can be often doubtful, and might belong to those to be mentioned no. 3. We must also consider the reduplication to have lost in all those verbs which have the theme of the perfect intical with that of the present, as defendo, defendi; scando, well verto, verti=ve-vert-i, &c.; also the themes in u, e.g. fs-i=the interpretation of the perfect interpretation of the perf

3. The initial of the root lost, and the vowel of the redupler tion contracted with that of the root.

Examples: -feci = fe-fici = fa-fac-i (comp. Osc. fe-fak-u) frégi = fre-frigi (or rather fra-fagi? comp. spo-pondi); and a the same manner jéci, cépi, égi, légi, véni = vevini (comp. ktimi of teneo). This formation seems to be limited in Latin to root with the radical a, as fac, jac, cap, ag, &c.; but it deserves the greater attention the more frequently it occurs in the Teutonic languages, where for instance the German perfect hielt (of halles, to hold) must be referred to the O. H. Germ. hialt=\(^thei-halt\), by the side of the Gothic reduplicated form hái-hald; Germ. stick (of stopen, to push, to butt), to O. H. Germ  $stioz = {}^{\dagger}stei-stoz$ , by the side of the Gothic reduplicated form stái-stáut, and numerous other examples which we shall mention hereafter both in the ancient and modern Teutonic dialects. The loss of the reduplication in these verbs may perhaps be ascribed to a tendency of languages in general to suppress one of two succeeding elements which are either similar or identical in form. The Latin language under such circumstances is fond of suppressing at least one consonant of the root where it begins with two, as ste-ti, spo-poudi, fra-fagi, i.e. frégi,

#### Gothic.

Only the stem-verbs and a few derivative verbs which are analogous to them (as saltan from salt) form a simple perfect; the perfect of the derivative verbs is always compound. In the Gothic perfect their remained, as a rule, either the reduplication or the gradation of the radical. The former we find chiefly with verbal themes which do not allow of gradation, namely such as have the radical a followed by two consonants, or take the highest gradation in the present theme already; we rarely find reduplication along with gradation of the radical a into  $\delta$ ,  $\epsilon$  into  $\delta$ .

of the root, which no doubt originally occurred in the plication too.

le more primitive mode of reduplicating is preserved in the H. Germ.  $t\ddot{e}-ta=ta-ta$ , root ta (to do), which in Gothic would i-da=da-da, and which answers to the Sansk.  $dadh\acute{a}u$ , prim.  $h\acute{a}$ . Of two consonants the initial only remains in the relication, except the combinations hv, sk, and st, which remain tre, e.g.  $sl\acute{e}pa$  (I sleep),  $s\acute{a}i-zl\acute{e}p$ ;  $gr\acute{e}ta$  (to weep),  $g\acute{a}i-gr\acute{e}t$ ;  $hl\acute{a}upa$ , I run (Germ. laufe),  $hl\acute{a}i-hl\acute{a}up$ ; stauta, percutio erm. stofe),  $st\acute{a}i-st\acute{a}ut$ ;  $sk\acute{a}ida$ , I separate (Germ. scheide),  $s\acute{a}i-sk\acute{a}id$ . According to the laws of reduplication and gradation we have to distinguish three forms of the Gothic perfect, which are produced by reduplication and gradation combined, by reduplication without gradation, and by gradation without reduplication.

# 1. Reduplication and gradation combined.

In all verbs coming under this head the radical is either a or  $\ell$ , gradated in the perfect into  $\ell$ . (1) The radical a (the present tense formed with the suffix -ya-): 1st sing. present vaia, = prim. va-ya-mi, root va, flare (Germ. wehen), perf. vai-v $\ell$ . Thus also the roots  $\ell$ a, to scold, sa, to sow. (2) The radical  $\ell$ : infinitive present  $\ell$  tan, to let, perf.  $\ell$  tan- $\ell$  the long  $\ell$  in the present tense is explained by some to be the effect of a nasal consonant having been dropped after the radical a, which nasal is still preserved in the cognate languages, e.g. Goth.  $\ell$  tat. tango; Goth.  $\ell$  tat. plang-o, Goth.  $\ell$  sansk. krand-ami.

## 2. Reduplication without gradation.

According to the rule laid down before, all the verbs falling under this head should be (1) such as have the radical a followed by two consonants, or (2) such as have the highest gradation in the present theme already. To the former belong halda (I hold), hái-hald; valda, I govern (Germ. walte), vái-vald: but fahan, to catch (Germ. faugen), and hahan, to hang (Germ. hangen), though they end with but one consonant, make by analogy fái-fah and hái-hah in the perfect. To the class under (2) belong hvópan (to boast) hvái-hvóp; skáidan, to separate (Germ. scheiden), skái-skáid; stáutan, percutere (Germ. stoßen), stái-stáut; because we have in these verbs the highest gradation in the present tense, namely ó being the highest or second gradation of a, ái of i, and áu of u. But slépan, to sleep, following the analogy of these verbs, also makes sái-zlép, though its é is only the first gradation of a.

3. Gradation without reduplication.

(A) In the verbs belonging to the sub-class (A) the singular of the perfect has the second (or highest) gradation, while the plural, the dual, and the optative present the simple radical i or u. Thus of the root vit, prim. vid (to know), we have the perf. sing. 1st váit, 2nd váis-t=\(^tv\)áit-t, 3rd váit, plur. 1st vit-u-m, &c. Comp. prim. 1st sing. viváida, 1st plur. vivid-masi as well as the corresponding forms in Sanskrit and Greek, p. 394.

In the same manner we have of the root grip (infinitive greipan, to gripe; Germ. greifen), the perf. gráip, grip-um; root stig, infinitive steigan, ascendere (Germ. steigen), stáig, stig-um; root thih, theiha, cresco (Germ. ge-deihe), tháih, thath-um—at for i on account of the succeeding h; root gut (infinitive giutan, to pour; Germ. gießen), gáut, gut-um; root tuh (infinitive tiuhan, to draw, to pull; Germ. ziehen), táuh, taúh-um—aú for u on account

of the succeeding h.

(B) The radical is a in the perfect gradated to  $\delta$ , which gradation remains in the plural, dual, and optative also; e. g. far-an, to go, present prim. fa-fara, perf. for, plur. for-um, prim. fa-fara, fa-far-masi; slah-an, to slay, perf. sloh, sloh-um; mal-an, molere (Germ malen), mol, mol-um; haf-ja-n, to lift (Germ. heben), hof, hof-um; root stath, stad, infinitive sta-n-d-an, to stand, perf. stoth. These verbs seem to have preserved the radical a intact in the present, under the shelter of an ancient reduplication, as fara-=fara, sta(n)da-, from a reduplicated form sta-sta-.

- (C) The singular of the perfect has weakened the original a into a, while the plural preserved it in the form of e, e.g. root vag, to move (Germ. be-weg-en), perf. sing. vag, prim. va-vágh-a, plur. vég-um, prim. vavágh-masi. In the present tense vig-a the radical a is weakened into i. Thus we have of the root at (to eat), present it-a, perf. sing. at, perf. plur. ét-um; stal (to steal), stila, stal, stélum; sat (to sit), sita, sat, sétum; vas (to be), visa, vas, vésum. The radical of the perfect may have resisted the weakening into i under the influence of its ancient reduplication, hence nam = na-nam, vag = va-vag.
- (D) The singular of the perfect has the radical a, but the plural the weakening of a into u, while in the present tense again the a is, as in the preceding case, weakened to  $i^1$ . To this class belong chiefly verbs which have the radical a succeeded by two

<sup>1 &#</sup>x27;In the preterite the reduplication which the Gothic but sparingly preserved, has been torn away in the course of time; but the strong vowel placed behind was sheltered, and where it was weakened it was not degraded to the weakest form (i), but to an intermediate degree (u), hence bundum (we bound), by the side of bindam (we bind).' Bopp, Vocalismus, p. 215.

nants; e. g. root rann, to leak (Germ. rinnen), present rinna, rann, plur. runn-um; prim. rarann-a, plur. rarann-masi: in same manner, hilpan (to help), halp, hulpum; bindan (to band, bundum; sviltan (to die), svalt, svultum; siggvan (to saggv, suggvum; singgqan = siggkvan (to sink), saggq, run. In this class there are many secondary roots; the rann (to leak), for instance, is formed as a present theme by as of the suffix -na- from the primitive root ar, to go; band bind) has an inorganic n; saggv and saggq also are unprimitive their final element.

#### PERFECT IN -8-.

In Old High German and in Old Norse there are remains of a perfect formed with s, as the Latin 2nd sing and plur. in is (-is-ti, -is-tis); e. g. Old Norse root sa, to sow, perf. sé-ra, sé-ri, for \*se-sa, \*se-si; root gra, vivere, perf. gré-ri; root, ar, ra, to row, perf. ré-ri. Old High German root scri, to shriek, 1st plur. perf. scri-r-u-més, from a primitive skri-s-masi (u is the connective vowel); root pi, pu, prim. bhu, to be, 1st plur. perf. pi-r-u-més, prim. bhu-s-masi, 2nd pi-r-u-t, prim. bhu-s-tasi. (Compare the consonants w and r, s and r.)

## THE COMPOUND (WEAK) PERFECT IN THE TEUTONIC DIALECTS.

The compound perfect is formed by the addition of the preterite of the verb 'to do' to the verbal theme. This formation we might imitate by coining new compounds, such as 'I lovedid,' 'thou love-didst,' &c. It is not found in the cognate languages, but was produced in the Teutonic primitive language after the separation from its Aryan sisters; it is therefore often called the New Perfect, and by Grimm the Weak Form, because it does not affect the radical vowel. Our English do, did, the German thu, that, Old High German tuô-m, and the Gothic noun dê-d-s (deed) may be referred to a Gothic root da, prim. dha, from which we get the 1st sing. pres. da-dhá-mi. Now in the Gothic compound the reduplication of the original  $\dagger dida =$ †da-da is lost in the singular, but preserved in the plural and in the optative, and the a is, in the last-mentioned forms, gradated to  $\ell = d$ , following the analogy of the frequently occurring perf. themes, as sat, plur. set. The reduplicated da, however, in the form of †dad-, plur. déd-, appeared then in the form of a true verbal theme.

Viere i seems in the summation of the perfect this word is considerately medicied. In vil mouse from the following, it was since the estimation of the perfect is the following. It was since the estimation of the personal suffix to which we do not into essewhere in the Personal suffix to which we do not into essewhere in the Personal suffix to which we do not into essewhere in the Personal suffix to which we do not into essewhere in the Personal suffix to which we do not into essewhere in the Personal suffix to which we do not into essewhere in the Personal suffix to the assumed perfect them into the time it to the estimate the common strong perfect, that the them is the time that the time and the second of the time members and the last sing, asside, let their themse means, it is means and, let their themse means, it is sing, selled, then the output to the time members and, let there are the time members and, let the time themse means, it is sing, selled, then the output to the time members are in the time and the sing, selled, then the output to the time time members are in the less sing, selled, then the output to the time time members are the sing, selled, then time time time time time.

The periest themes with present signification presents form in this manner i new perfect; e.g. 1st sing. mal-is for "may-is. Mines or themes before dentals are changed into the southers of the same organ, and every dental must be rendered by the tennis; the mal-ide, 1st plur. mal-ideum, more may, possum: man for "ma-is for "vit-is, of viit, root vii, to know: and-is of cit; shall, debed. Besides these there are few examples of this formation, such as theb-ts for "thak-do, I thought, present topics. I think.

In the Terroric inherts generally the compound perfect is formed as in Grains, the suffix vibil assuming the following modifications in the inferent inhects.

Ć,	1.F1L11.	) H.G.	Ф <b>S</b> .	A. S.	O. Fris.	0. N.
Smr : st : s	248	28 *34 23	देख देख देख	de des	de dest	da dir di
	ded en ded sa	tumēs tuš tum	dun dun dun	don don don	don don don	
Dual 1st e and e	déd i déduta	••	 i	-	::	••

These modified forms are added to the theme of the derivative verbs in aya, which again appears in three modifications: (1) The first a dropped, as ja, ji, in the present and -i- (-e-) in the perfect; e.g. Goth. nasja, nasjis, perf. nas-i-da, O. H. Germ. ner-i-ta, O. S. ner-i-da, A. S. ner-e-de, O. Fris. ner-e-de, O. N. (without

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The -st in Anglo-Saxon, and Old Frisian -dest, would answer to a Gothic <sup>†</sup>dnst = dud-t, and is more correct than the -s in the termination of the other dialects.

the derivative suffix) ken-da. (2) The y of aya being dropped +a appears as 6, e. g. Goth. salb-6, salb-6-s, perf. salb-6-da, O. H. Germ. salp-6-ta, O. S. scaw-6-da (1st sing. pres. scaw-6-n, 2nd scaw-6-s); A. S. scalf-6-de (1st sing. scalf-je, 2nd scalf-a-st); O. Fris. salv-a-de, O. N. kall-a-3a. (3) The last a of aya disappears, and the derivative suffix is ai, e. g. Goth. 1st sing. present indicative haba, 2nd hab-ai-s, perf. hab-ai-da, O. H. Germ. hap-e-ta. Thus Gothic and Old High German have three, the other dialects only two conjugations of the weak form. Concerning the details, see the Conjugations. The modern dialects either drop the thematic suffix altogether and join the termination directly to the root, or the suffix always appears in the weakened form e.

### THE INFINITIVE.

The suffix -ana- is used in Sanskrit, Greek, and the Teutonic languages, to form themes which are used as infinitives, which therefore must have belonged to the primitive language.

In Sanskrit the dative and locative singular of abstracts in -ana-(-andya, -ané) have the function of the infinitive, e. g. dative gam-andya, locative gam-ane, theme gam-ana-, nom. sing. gam-ana-m (neuter noun), root gam, to go; ás-and, root ás, to sit.

The Greek language forms with the suffix ana the infinitive in  $-\epsilon \nu a\iota$ , which Schleicher looks upon as the locative of feminine themes. Thus  $\lambda \epsilon \lambda a\iota n-\epsilon \nu a\iota$  refers us to a primitive theme  $rir\acute{a}ik$ -ana-, i.e. a nomen agent is derived from the perfect theme by means of the suffix -ana-. Themes which end with a vowel commonly take -na instead of -ana, hence  $\delta \iota \delta \delta -\nu a\iota$ ,  $\iota \delta \tau \dot{a} \nu a\iota$ ,  $\delta \epsilon \iota \kappa \nu \dot{\nu} \nu a\iota$ ; but  $\theta \epsilon \hat{\iota} \nu a\iota = ^{\dagger} \theta \epsilon -\epsilon \nu a\iota$ ,  $\delta \epsilon \dot{\nu} \nu a\iota = ^{\dagger} \delta \epsilon -\epsilon \nu a\iota$ ,  $\delta \epsilon \dot{\nu} \nu a\iota = ^{\dagger} \delta \epsilon -\epsilon \nu a\iota$ .

The Gothic infinitive has lost the case-sign of the noun as well as the final a of the theme-suffix ana, and it consequently always ends with an. This suffix however is so added as to suppress the final a of the theme, or we might say, vice versa, the final a of the theme is also the initial of the suffix, e. g. theme baira-, prim. bhara-, infinitive bair-an, prim. bhar-ana-, root bar, prim. bhar, to bear; thus also it-an, to eat; prim. ad-ana-, pres. theme ita-, prim. ada-, root at, prim. ad; steig-an, to ascend (Germ. steigen), prim. staigh-ana-; satjan, prim. saday-ana-.

As in Gothic so in the Teutonic dialects generally -an is adopted as the termination of the infinitive, which in Old Frisian and Old Norse is curtailed to a, as faran, O. Fris. and O. N. fara.

This an appears in the Middle and New Teutonic dialects as en, e.g. Germ. lieb-en, Dutch be-minn-en. The English language also preserved the termination of the infinitive as late as to the times of Spenser and Shakespeare, though we find also in Layamon already forms where the n is dropped, and the force of the infinitive imparted to the verb by the preposition 'to.' Swedish and Danish follow their Old Norse mother, the former rendering the infinitive by the termination a, the latter weakening it to e.

#### PARTICIPLES.

#### PRESENT PARTICIPLE ACTIVE.

The suffix -ant, -nt, which occurs in all the Aryan languages, is chiefly employed in the formation of the present participle.

Primitive. Root bhar, to bear, present theme bhara-, present part. bhara-nt-; root star, to strew, present theme star-na-, present part. star-na-nt-.

Sanskrit. Root and present theme ad-, to eat, part. ad-ant-; root and present theme as-, to be, part. as-ant-; root tud, to strike, present theme tuda-, present part. tuda-nt; root yu, to join, present theme yuna-, present part. yuna-nt-.

**Greek.** The suffix appears in the shape of  $-o\nu\tau$ ,  $-\nu\tau$ , fem.  $-o\nu\sigma a = ^{\dagger} -o\nu\sigma a = ^{\dagger} o\nu\tau y a$ . Root  $\phi\epsilon\rho$ , to bear, theme  $\phi\epsilon\rho\sigma$ , part.  $\phi\epsilon\rho\sigma$ - $\nu\tau$ -, fem.  $\phi\epsilon\rho\sigma\sigma\sigma$ ; root  $\delta\sigma$ , to give, theme  $\delta\iota\delta\sigma$ -, part.  $\delta\iota\delta\sigma$ - $\nu\tau$ -; root  $\theta\epsilon$ , to set, theme  $\tau\iota\theta\epsilon$ -, part.  $\tau\iota\theta\epsilon$ - $\nu\tau$ ; root  $\sigma\tau\sigma$ , to stand, theme  $\iota\sigma\tau\sigma$ -, part.  $\iota\sigma\tau\sigma$ - $\nu\tau$ .

**Latin.** Suffix -ent, -nt, in a more ancient form -unt,  $^{\dagger}$ -ont; e. g. root veh, to move, theme vehe-, part. vehe-nt-; root i, to go, present theme i=ei, part. i-ent-, e-unt-= $^{\dagger}e$ -ont-.

Gothic. The form of the suffix is -nd, -nda. Root bar, to bear, present theme baira- for bira-, part nom. sing. masc. baira-nd-s, from a primitive bhara-nt-s or bhara-nt(a)-s; very likely the latter, because it is treated as a theme in -a in all the other cases. Under these circumstances the form of the theme -nda, -ndja, is extended by the addition of the suffix -an, fem. -jan, so that we arrive at the thematic suffix -ndan-, -ndjan-, which forms are treated like the themes in -n of the definite adjective; e.g. accus. sing. masc. baira-ndan, from a prim. bhara-ntan-am; loc (dat.) baira-ndiu, from a prim. bhara-ntan-i; nom. sing. fem. baira-ndei, from a prim. bhara-ntyán-s; gen. baira-ndein-s, prim. bhara-ntyán-as.

But when these participles are used as substantives, they still show the older consonantal theme in -and, -nd, in several cases, e.g. nom. sing. giba-nd-s, one giving, a giver, theme giba, root gab; bi-sita-nd-s, one sitting near, a neighbour, theme sita-, root sat. These nominatives may fairly be considered true consonantal themes, because they are supported by the consonantal character of the locatives (datives), e. g. giband, bisitand, from a primitive locative sadant-i, &c. Thus also the plural sitand-s from a prim. sadant-as1.

The other Teutonic dialects also have preserved the participial suffix, and some of them to the present day. It occurs, as in Gothic, in the form -nd, respectively -nt, which is joined to the vowel of the theme. The participle is in the ancient dialects treated in the same manner as the definite adjective, in the modern, as any other adjective, definite or indefinite, as the case may be. The different forms will easily be understood from the following paradigm.

Gothic.	O. H. Germ.	Old Saxon.	Anglo-Saxon.	O. Fris.	Old Norse.
finth-a-nd-s, finding	find-a-nt-êr	find-a-nd	find-e-nd-e	find-a-nd	finn-a-nd-i
nas-ja-nd-s, }	ner-ja-nt-êr	ner-ja-nd	ner-je-nd-e	ner-a-nd	∫ tel-ja-nd-i, telling
hab-a-nd-s, having	hap-ê-nt-êr	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} scaw-\delta-nd, \ looking \end{array}  ight.$	sêc-e-nd-e, seeking	sec-a-nd	kenn-a-nd-i,

In the Middle and New Teutonic dialects the e of the termination -e-nd is no longer felt as the thematic vowel, but treated as belonging to the participial termination, so that in Late Saxon we have inde, ande, instead of the original ende. On the other hand, in Modern English, the whole form is supplanted by the verbal substantive in -ing, a fact which occasionally occurs in Layamon already, while in Old English and Middle English we find the participial form in end, ind, ynd, and, side by side with the verbal substantive in ing, inge, ynge, performing the func-New English discarded the legitimate tions of the participle. form altogether to the benefit of the intruder, so that now the participle and the verbal substantive are identical. Some of the modern dialects however have preserved the participle in end, as we see in the German find-end, lieb-end, hab-end, &c., where the Old High German t has yielded to the influence of the Low German d.

<sup>1</sup> On the declension of the participle, see Themes in -nd, p. 324.

#### Perfect Participle Passive of Stem-Verbs.

# Suffix -na.

This form occurs in Sanskrit in very few examples, such as pur-na- for par-na-, root par, to fill; bugh-na-, root bhug, to bend; in Greek and Latin also it is only fragmentary, chiefly in adjectives; but in Gothic all stem-verbs form their perfect participle in -na, which, combined with the thematic a and the case-sign s, yields the terminations for the nominative singular masculine an-s, fem. ana, neut. an, from the primitive forms masc. -ana-s, fem. -ana, neut. -ana-m; e.g. salta (salio), perf. part. saltan-s, saltana, saltan; háita (voco), háitan-s; giba (I give), giban-s; stila (I steal), stulan-s; or, if we take the thematic vowel separately, salt-a-n-s, háit-a-n-s, &c. At any rate we may say that the theme of this participle ends in Gothic with -an-.

The same termination is taken up by the other Teutonic dialects ancient and modern, the latter weakening it to -en, a form which even Modern English has preserved among the few grammatical fragments handed down from its Anglo-Saxon The suffix -an, -en, is used only with stem-verbs, mother. which form their perfect by modifying the radical, and belong to Grimm's strong conjugation. One example may suffice for the sake of illustration. The Gothic stilan (to steal), perf. stal, plur. stelum, makes the perfect participle stulan-s1, O. H. Germ. -stolan-er2, O. S. stolan, A. S. stolen, O. Fris. stolen, O. N. stolinn, M. H. Germ. stoln, M. Dutch stolen, Late Sax. stolenn<sup>3</sup>, O. Engl. stolen, M. Engl. stoln, N. Engl. stolen and stoln, N. H. Germ. -stôlen, N. Dutch stôlen, Swed. stûlen, Dan. stiaalen.

### Perfect Participle Passive of Derivative Verbs.

The primitive suffix is -ta, which in the masculine assumes the case-sign -s, in the neuter -m, in the feminine gradates the final vowel; so that the terminations are, masc. a-s, fem. a', neut. a-m; Greek suffix - $\tau o$ -, terminations o-s,  $\eta$ , o- $\nu$ ; Latin suffix -t u- for -to-, terminations u-s (for  $^{\dagger}o$ -x), a (for  $\vec{a}$ ), u-m (for  $^{\dagger}o$ -m).

Theme in Gothic, p. 398 sqq.

2 Where we prefix the hyphen to the participial form, it indicates the augment ge, Old High German ga, which precedes the verb.

3 Layamon has in this word dropped the n, and makes the participle stole; but he has cumen, toren, broken, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Concerning the modification of the radical, see the Formation of the Perfect

Primitive. Participles da-ta-, kru-ta-, kak-ta-, sádaya-ta-, of the roots da (to give), kru (to hear), kak (to cook), sad (to sit).

Sanskrit. Participles ma-ta-, bhr-ta, bad-dha- for †bad-ta-, of the roots man (to think), bhar (to bear), badh, bandh (to bind).

Greek. Participles  $\kappa\lambda\nu-\tau\delta$ -,  $\phi\epsilon\nu\kappa-\tau\delta$ -,  $\sigma\tau\alpha-\tau\delta$ -,  $\theta\epsilon$ - $\tau\delta$ -,  $\gamma\nu\omega-\tau\delta$ , of the roots  $\kappa\lambda\nu$  (to hear),  $\phi\nu\gamma$  (to flee),  $\sigma\tau\alpha$  (to stand),  $\theta\epsilon$  (to set),  $\nu\nu\sigma$  (to know).

Latin. Participles da-to-, sta-to, i-to-, coc-to-, of the roots da

(to give), sta (to stand), i (to go) coc (to cook).

Gothic. The suffix in the form of -da, nom. sing. masc. -th-s for †da-s, neut. -th for †da-m, fem. -da. These terminations are added to the theme of derivative verbs; e. g. theme sôki-, part. masc. sôki-th-s, neut. sôki-th, fem. sôki-da; theme fisko-, part. masc fiskô-th-s, neut. fiskô-th, fem. fiskô-da. This suffix is also used in all those verbs which apply the perfect theme for the functions of the present (Præterito-Præsentia) and their analogues, such as mah-ta, thah-ta, brah-ta, of the roots mag (to be

able), thak (to think), brag (to bring).

The other Teutonic dialects apply the same suffix in the form of -d, or -t, respectively, which they add to the thematic vowel of the derivative or weak verb; e.g. O. H. Germ. -ner-i-t-êr, O. S. -ner-i-d, A. S. ner-e-d, O. Fris. ner-i-d, Goth. nas-i-th-s for †nas-i-da-s, from nasjan, to save; thus also the O. N. tal-d-r for an older †tal-i-da-s from taljan, to count, to tell; O. H. Germ. salp-ô-t-êr, Goth. salb-ô-th-s for salb-ô-da-s; compare O. N, kall $a-\delta-r$  for  $\dagger kall-a-da-s$ ; O. S.  $scaw-\delta-d$ , looked; A. S.  $-sealf-\delta-d$ ; Late Saxon makode and makede, ascode and askede; O. Engl. thanked and thankid; N. Engl. thanked, N. H. Germ. -dankt. In the Middle and New Teutonic languages the distinction of different weak conjugations, that is, of different themes formed by the derivative suffix aya, is, with few exceptions, lost; hence the thematic or connective vowel is always e, and the participial termination -ed, -et, respectively; or, dropping the thematic e altogether, -d, -t. On the whole the thematic e and the suffixed participial d are treated in the same manner as the perfect termination and its preceding thematic vowel, and we shall therefore leave the details of their various modifications for the section on Weak Conjugations.

#### THE PERFECT IN THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

## REDUPLICATION (ABLAUT). CLASSIFICATION OF STRONG VERM

Reduplication was in the Teutonic, as in the other Arys languages, the most primitive mode of forming the perfect This fact must always be borne in mind if we wish to arrive st something like order and system in a subject which is rather complicated in its nature because often obscure in its origin and Many phenomena in the Ablaut of Teutonic development. verbs can only be explained by the influence of a reduplicational syllable upon the radical, the effect of which remained even when the cause had ceased to exist. Several examples of the kind in Gothic we had already occasion to notice. other Teutonic languages our rule is of the same importance. Though the reduplication has completely disappeared from the verb, it has left an indelible impression on the system of Ablaut. Under 'Ablaut' Teutonic grammarians understand a modification of the radical which takes place in the perfect tense and the perfect participle. This modification consisted originally in the gradation of the root in the perfect singular, gradation or weakening in the present tense, weakening in the perfect participle; and it was a phonetic change of secondary importance, concomitant with the reduplication, but not necessary for the formation of the perfect, far less sufficient of itself to denote that The more however the ancient mode of reduplication was abandoned, the more important became the modification of the radical in the formation of the tenses, until finally it was the only means of expressing the temporal relations of the verb. Still it would be impossible to deny the influence of reduplication on the Ablaut, not merely in the ancient Teutonic verb, but in verbal forms of the present day. This point we are about Reduplication, in its original form, must have contained the vowel of the root; the perfect of the verb halden must have been ha-hald in the primitive Teutonic. Now we find that in the Gothic, such as it is in extant documents, the radical is everywhere replaced by the vowel ai in the redupli-This change may have occurred before the cational syllable. separation of the different Teutonic tribes took place, and must therefore have affected all the dialects. Thus then the Old High man would use hei-halt for ha-halt, the Low German hi-hald Ai-hald, Anglo-Saxon probably heo-heald. (eo for i, see Anglo-

Son Brechung of the vowel i.)

The loss of the reduplication seems to date from a period hen the Teutonic nation had lost the centre of unity, and had eparated into tribes independent of one another. While Gothic has preserved the reduplication in many verbs, the other dialects have lost it altogether—all of them, however, show traces of the ancient grammatical form. We have seen how in Latin, through a process of contraction, forms arose such as cépi from †ca-capi, féci from †fa-faci, frégi, from †fra-fragi or rather †fra-fagi. A similar inclination to combine the reduplicational and the radical syllable came upon the Teutonic languages, and a like effect was produced in the contraction of the vowels; hence O. H. Germ. hialt, O.S. héld for the Goth. hai-hald. In the first-mentioned dialect the diphthong still represents the hisyllabic nature of the ancient perfect, while in the Low German they were more closely amalgamated into  $\hat{e}$ . This process of contraction becomes clearly apparent from two examples left in Old High German. One we find in the perfect pi-hei-alt, used by Kero (eighth century), which is but one step from the primitive form hei-halt, the reduplicated perfect of hall-an. From this example it would appear, that the initial consonant of the root was lost first, and that then the vowels were more and more closely contracted, so that from heialt we arrive in later documents at the forms hialt, hialt, hielt, until in Modern German it is pronounced hilt, though still spelt as a diphthong in hielt. The closest contraction took place in the ancient Low German dialects, which passed through the diphthongal form to held, hild. Another example we have in the O. H. Germ. ana-stëroz (impingebat), which stands for ana-stesos, the s of the original form being changed into r, and the  $\ddot{e}$  being the weakened form of i, the remainder of the original reduplicational vowel ei, so that we arrive next at stëstôz and finally at stei-stôz, the parallel to the Gothic stai-stáut, perfect of stáutan, O. H. Germ. stózan, percutere. In the same manner was formed pleruz for †ple-luz (the second l dissimilated) for †plei-ploz, perfect of pluozan, to sacrifice. The usual form of the perfect of stozan is stioz (stiaz and stiez are peculiarities of special dialects) with io, because of the dark full radical O. H. Germ. 6, Goth. au, in which case the Low German dialects also have the diphthongal form io or eo; but of haldan, heizan, it is hiald, hiaz (never hiold, hioz), Low Germ. héld (A.S. heold), hét, ia,  $\hat{e}$ , on account of the high-sounding radicals a, ei = Goth. a,  $\acute{a}i$ . A few fragments of reduplication are preserved in Anglo-Saxon

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From this then I may be near how the Aldart or modification of the radical in the terriest tense, was affected in the Temoral timests by the redundants of it makes the loss of the redundants of and we therefore feel justified in arranging the inferent Territors period in the same matter as we did in Gomma.

We shall now take the althout of the perfect participle also must account because it is one of the chief characteristics in the conjugation of the strong very in the modern Tentonic dialects, and because it gives the beginner one contents more to direct him in the examination and study of that subject in the ancient Tentonic languages.

We first proceed to the classification of the Old Teutonic strong verbs.

#### I.

Under this head we consider to fall all those verbs which in G thic have reduplication and gradation combined. The radical is either a or  $\ell$ ; where the former occurs, the present theme is formed with the suffix  $-\mu x_1$ , that is,  $\mu t_1$ ; in the perfect singular and plural we have the second gradation  $\ell$ ; the perfect participle has the radical of the present. In the other Teutonic languages the  $\ell$  of the Gothic present is represented by their respective vowels of the first gradation; e.g. Old High German d, Anglo-Saxon a, &c.! The radical of the perfect is of course modified by the reduplication. Thus we get the vocalic system of—

<sup>1</sup> The Table of Gradations should always be consulted (p. 24).

# CLASS I. (Grimm IV, V, VI.)

# Radical a, é:-

Pres.					Perf.	Perf. Plur.						Perf. Part		
Gothic	ai (	(a)	ð.		δ.				8.					ai, ê
O. H. Germ.	â.	•			ia				la					â
Old Saxon	â.				ê, ie	٠.			ê, ic	٠.				â
Anglo-Saxon	æ				ê.				ê.					æ
Old Frisian	ê.			•	î, ê			•	î, ê					ê
Old Norse	â.				8.				8.					å

## Examples :---

Gothic	saia .		sai-sô		saî-sôum		saians
O. H. Germ.	lêta .		lai-lôt		lai-lôtum		lêta <b>ns</b>
O. H. Germ.	lâzu .		liaz .		liazumes		lázanér
Old Saxon	lâtu .		lêt .		lêtum .		lâtan
Anglo-Saxon							
Old Frisian							
Old Norse	lâta .		lét .		lêtum .		lâtinn

## Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. saia, sow (Germ. sæe; sero); laia, scold, irrideo; vaia, breathe, blow (Germ. wehe; flo); grêta, cry, weep, ploro; flêka, complain, plango; lêta, let (Germ. lase; sino); têka, touch, tango. slépa, sleep (Germ. schlafe; dormio), makes the perf. saizlép, avoiding the second gradation.

Old High German. slafu, sleep (Germ. schlafe); ratu, advise (Germ. rate; consulo); lázu, let (Germ. lage; sino). háhu, hang (Germ. hange; suspendo), and fahu, catch (Germ. fange; capio), take the perfect of hankan, vankan. (Class II.)

Old Saxon. slápu<sup>2</sup>, rádu, látu, ondrádu, fear, dread, metuo. háhu and fáhu make their perfect after Class II.

Anglo-Saxon. slæpe, græte, læte, ondræde. sawe, sero = Goth. saia, follows the analogy of Class III.

Old Frisian, slépa, réda, léta, wépa, weep; plorare.

Old Norse. gráta, láta, ráda, blása, breathe, spirare. (catch, capere) makes the present fa, perf. sing. fêck, plur. fêngum, perf. part. fenginn.

<sup>1</sup> Of Old Frisian and Old Norse we give the infinitive instead of the 1st singular present indicative.

<sup>3</sup> Where no translation is given, the meaning of the word may be seen from the parallels in the preceding cognate dialects.

#### II.

Under this head we group in Gothic all those verbs which have reduplication without gradation. They have either the radical a followed by two consonants (commonly liquid with mute), or highest gradation in the present theme already; the radical of the present remains throughout. In the other Teutonic languages the radical a is preserved in the present, and in the perfect participle; in the perfect it is changed under the influence of the reduplication. The verbs with the second gradation have either ai (second gradation of i) or au (second gradation of u) in the present tense, which gradation is rendered in the other Teutonic languages by the corresponding vowels.

Thus we get three classes, of which we give the vocalic

system in the following.

# CLASS II. (Grimm I.)

Dadied		·				''							
Radical a:-	Pres.	Perf. Sing.							Perf. Plu	1	Perf. Part.		
Gothic	a				a.				a			a	
O. H. Germ.									ia .				
Old Saxon									ê, ie .				
Anglo-Saxon	a, ea				ê, eó				ê, eó.			a, ea	
Old Frisian	a				í, ê				îê.			a	
Old Norse	a	•	•	•	ê.		•	•	ê		•	a	
Examples :-	_												
Gothic	halda				hai-h	ald			hai-hal	dum		haldans	
O. H. Germ.												haltanêr	
Old Saxon	hald:				hêld.				hêldun			haldan	
Anglo-Saxon	healde				hcóld	١.			heóblor	ı		healden	
,,	spanne				8pên				spėnon			spannen	
Old Frisian	halda				hîlt				ĥîldon			halde <b>n</b>	
Old Norse	halda		•		hêlt .				hêldum	٠		haldinn	

# Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. salta, salt (Germ. salze; salio); halda, guard, pasco; walda, rule, command (Germ. walte; impero); falpa, fold (Germ. falte; plico); faha, catch (Germ. fange; capio); haha, hang (Germ. hange; suspendo).

Old High German. vallu, fall (Germ. falle; cado); haltu, hold (Germ. halte; teneo); spaltu, cleave (Germ. spalte; scindo); valdu, fold (Germ. falte; plico); salzu, salt (Germ. salze; salio); kanku, gangu, go, eo; fangu, receive (Germ. em(p) fange; suscipio); hanku, hangu, hang (Germ. hange; suspendo); aru, plough, aro.

Old Saxon. fallu, haldu, waldu, fangu, gangu; blandu, mix, blend, misceo.

Anglo-Saxon. fealle, healde, fange, hange, occur in the perfect only; spanne, span (Germ. spannen; tendo), wealde, rule, command, dominor.

Old Frisian. halde, valde, impero.

Old Norse. falla, halda, valda, blanda, ganga; hangi, pendeo; falda, plicare. As to the irregularities of this class, see our remarks below.

# CLASS III. (Grimm II.)

Radical ai (	i):-	_														
	Pre	<b>.</b>			Perf.	Sir	ıg.		Perf. Plur.					Perf. Part.		
Gothic	ai									ai						
O. H. Germ.	ei				ia					ia,					ei	
Old Saxon	8				ê, ic					8, 1	ie .				ð	
Anglo-Saxon	â				ê, eó					8, 6	· 6 .				â	
Old Frisian	â				€, 8					6. 8					8	
Old Norse	ei	•	•	•	8.	•	•	•	•	ê.	•	•	•	•	ei	
Examples :-	_															
Gothic	ska	ida			skai-	sk	aid			ska	i-sl	aio	lun	a .	skaidans	
••	hai	ta			hai-										haitans	
	ake				skia										skeidanêr	
Old Saxon	skê	du			skêd										skêda <b>n</b>	
Anglo-Saxon	<b>s</b> câ₁	de			sceóo	l				sce	ódor	1.			scâden	
.,	hât	e .			hêt					hât	on				haten	
Old Frisian	hête	e .			hît					hit	on.				hôten	
Old Norse	heit		•		hēt										heitinn	

#### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. haita, am called (Germ. heiße, O. Engl. hight; vocor); maita, cut off, abscido; skaida, separate (Germ. scheide; separo); fraisa, tempt, tento; af-aika, deny, nego; laika, leap, jump, rejoice, ludo.

Old High German. heizu, skeidu, meizu, zeisu, carpo.

Old Saxon. hétu, skédu, suépu, verro.

Anglo-Saxon. háte, scáde, swápe, láce.

Old Frisian. hête, skêthe.

Old Norse. heita, leika, sweipa.

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# CLASS IV. (Grimm III.)

	CL	Dian	- 11	100			
Radical au (	u): Pres.			Sing.		Perf. Plur.	Perf. Part.
Gothic O. H. Germ. Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon Old Frisian Old Norse	au		. au . io, io . io, io . io, io . io, io	6		io, ia	. ou, ō . ô . câ . a, ê . au
Examples:-	-					hlai-hlaupun	. Maupani
Gothic O. H. Germ. Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon Old Frisian Old Norse	hlaupa - hloufu - hlopu - hleape - hlapa - hlapa -		. hlia	p. p.		hliafumës . hliopun . hleopon .	hlopan hleapen hlapen
			CLA	ss IV	Ta.		
Radical 6 (a	1):						. 1
Gothic O. H. Germ. Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon Old Frisian Old Norse	8		. ? . io, . io, . eò . î, ii	ie -		io	. 110 . 0, 110 . 0, 2 . 0, 2 . 0
Examples :-	-			1142		bai-blôtum !	blstans?
Gothic O. H. Germ.	blôta pluozu hruofu		. bai- plie hrie			pliazumės? hriofumės	hrsofaner hropan
Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon	hrepan.		. bled	it .	: :	hreópon Aiokon	hrepen flöken scepen
Old Frisian Old Norse	flőka wépa blóta			p.		wiopon - blétum -	* Theliam

# Verbs belonging to this Class.

IV. Gothic. hlaupa, run (Germ. laufe; curro); stauta, strike, butt (Germ. stoße; percutio); ana-auka, add, join, addo. Old High German. hloufu; houwu, cut, hew (Germ. haue; cædo); scrótu, cut (Germ. schrote; seco); stózu=Goth. stauta. Old Saxon. Mopn, fican, perf. part. of & gihanwan, perf. po perf. part. of †odu. de, tedd; tede Anglo-Saxon. genitus; eácen, a

# CLASS IV. (Grimm III.)

Radical as	( <b>*</b> ):—				•		•	
	Pres.				Perf. Sin	ng.	Perf. Plur.	Perf. Part.
Gothie O. H. Germ. Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon Old Frisian Old Norse  Examples: Gothic O. H. Germ.	eu . ou, 6 6 ci . au .  klaupa				au . io, ia io, ie co . i, io . io, i . klai-kla kliaf		au	ou, ô ê eá a, ê au hlaupans hlosfanêr
Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon Old Frisian Old Norse	klöpu kleáps klápa klápa	•	:	:	kleóp [kliop		hleóponhliopon]	klåpen
Radical 6 (d	ı):			•		1 1 000		
Gothic O. H. Germ. Old Saxon	8 wo . 8, wo 6, 8 . 8, 8 .	:	:	:	io ie	: : :	io	? ************************************
Examples :-	_							
Gothic O. H. Germ. Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon	hruof <b>u</b> hrôpu	:	:		hrion		hriofum <b>ês</b> hriopun	blôtans? pluozanêr hruofanêr hrôpan blôten
Old Frisian Old Norse	hrêpan flôka wêpa	:	:	:	hreóp fliok		hrcópon fliokon wiopon	hrêpen flôken wêpen
Old Morse	blôta	•	•	٠	0166 .		blétum	blôtinn

## Verbs belonging to this Class.

IV. Gothic. hlaupa, run (Germ. laufe; curro); stauta, strike, butt (Germ. stoße; percutio); ana-auka, add, join, addo.

Old High German. hloufu; houwu, cut, hew (Germ. haue;

cædo); scrótu, cut (Germ. schrote; seco); stózu = Goth. stauta.
Old Saxon. hlópu, ocan, perf. part. of óku, augeo; †ódan, perf. part. of †ôdu, gigno; gihauwan, perf. part. of †hauwan.

Anglo-Saxon. hleápe; heáwe; beáte, beat, verbero; part. eáden, genitus; eácen, auctus, from teáde, teód; teáce, teóc.

Old Frisian. hlépe = Goth. hlaupa; stête = Goth. stauta.

Old Norse. hlaupa; audinn, genitum, perf. part. of 'eyd; ausa, haurire; auka, augere; bua, dwell, habitare; spua, spit (Germ. speien; spuere); höggva, to cut, strike, cædere=O. H. Germ. houwu, A. S. heawe.

IV a. Gothic. blôta? revere, deum colo; hvopa? boast, glorior.

Old High German. hruofu, call (Germ. rufe; clamo); pluozu, sacrifice, libo; wuofu, weep, groan, ululo, plango, ejulo; vluohhu, curse, maledico = Goth. fléka (Class I).

Old Saxon. hrópu; wópu, weep; flócan, maledictus, perf. part.

Anglo-Saxon. hrépe, wêpe; rôwe, row, remigo.

Old Frisian. hrépa, wépa; flôka, maledicere.

Old Norse. blôta, sacrifice.

#### III.

Under this head we enumerate verbs which in the perfect take gradation without reduplication. These again may be divided into different classes. Some have in the perfect singular second gradation, but in the plural the simple pure root, in accordance with the primitive rule of gradation. The perfect participle has, like the perfect plural, the short radical; the present tense commonly raises the radical to the first gradation. This class again may be subdivided into such as have the radical i, and others with the radical u. As to the mode of gradation in the present and the perfect singular, compare the Table of Gradations. Where the radical is u, it is in all the dialects, except Gothic, weakened to o in the perfect participle; Old Frisian weakens it to e in the perfect plural and the perfect participle.

#### CLASS V. (Grimm VIII.)

madical i:														
	Pres.		P	erf. 8	inį	g.	P	erf.	P	lur	•	P	erf.	Part.
Gothic	ci			ai	•	٠.		ŧ					í	
O. H. Germ.	í.			ei, é	١.			4					i	
Old Saxon	£ .			8.				í					í	
Anglo-Saxon	f .			â.				í					ś	
Old Frisian	f.			8.				ś					í	
Old Norse	4			d			_	i					í	•

Examples:-									
•	Pres.		I	Perf. Sin	g.		Perf. Plur.		Perf. Part.
Gothic	greipa			graip			gripum .		gripans
19	leihva			laihv			laihvum		laikvans
O. H. Germ.	krîfu			kreif			krifum .		krifans
Old Saxon	gripu			grðp .			gripun .		gripan
Anglo-Saxon	gripe			grâp			gripon .		gripen
Old Frisian	grîpa			grêp .			gripon .		gripen
Old Norse	gripa			greip			gripum .		gripian

### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. keina, germ (Germ. keime; germino); skeina, shine (Germ. scheine; luceo); greipa, seize, gripe (Germ. greife; rapio); dreiba, drive (Germ. treibe; pello); sveiba, cease, desino; kneita, bow (Germ. neige; inclino); speiva, spit (Germ. speie; spuo); smeita, smite, smear (Germ. schmeiße, schmiere; illino); in-reita, adore; beida, expect, abide; leiba, go, eo; sneib-a, cut (Germ. schneide; seco); ur-reisa, rise, surgo; steiga, ascend (Germ. steigen); ga-teiha, announce (Germ. an-zeige, zeihe, ἀναγγέλλω); beiha, grow (Germ. ge-deihe; cresco).

Old High German. chínu, germino; scínu, luceo; krífu, rapio; tripu, pello; kníhu, inclino; stíku, scando; díhu, cresco, proficio; zíhu, annuntio, accuso; scripu, write (Germ. schreibe, scribo); spíwu, spuere; mídu, avoid (Germ. meiden; evito); snídu, seco; pítu, expecto; rítu, ride (Germ. reiten; equo vehor); wízu, know (Germ. weiß; imputo); gríu, gannio; scriu, shriek (Germ. schreie; clamo), perf. plur. grirumés, scrirumés, see Perfect in -s-, p. 401.

Old Saxon. kinu, germino; skinu, luceo; gripu, arripio; dribu, pello; spiwu, spuo; writu, scribo; bidu, expecto; midu, evito; snidu, seco; stigu, scando.

Anglo-Saxon. scine, fulgeo; gripe, arripio; drife, pello; spiwe, spuo; smite, percutio; bide, expecto; lide, proficiscor; hnige, inclino; stige, scando; tihe, arguo; pihe, proficio.

Old Frisian. gripa, prehendere; drifa, pellere; snîtha, secare; hniga, flectere; stiga, scandere, perf. stêch.

Old Norse. skin, luceo; grip, prehendo; drif, pello; zrif, moveor; bit, bite, mordeo; lið, proficiscor; qrið, metuo; rið, equito; snið, seco; swið, doleo; ris, surgo; vik, yield (Germ. weiche; cedo); hnig, inclino.

### CLASS VI. (Grimm IX.)

		"	3	v 1.	- (	O.	ш	1111	1 11	•)			
Radical u:-	_												
	Pres.			Perf.	Si	ng.			Perf	. P	lur.		Perf. Part.
Gothic	iu .			au					u.				u
O. H. Germ.		û		014,	δl				<b>u</b> .				0
Old Saxon	iu. io, 1	ê		0.					<b>u</b> .				0
Anglo-Saxon	eó, û			eá					u.				0
Old Frisian	iu, ia,	a		â.					е.				e
Old Norse	iu, io, 1	2		au	•		•	•	u.	•		•	0
Examples :-	_												
Gothic	giuta			gau	t.				gut	4776			gutans
,,													kusans
O. H. Germ.													kozanêr
<b>&gt;&gt;</b>	chiusu			chô	ß .				chu	run	nê <b>s</b>		choranêr
,,	triufu			trou	f				truj	um	ĉs		t <del>r</del> ofanêr
Old Saxon	giutu			gôt					gutı	ın			gota <b>n</b>
**	kiusu			kôs					kur	un			koran
Anglo-Saxon	geóte			geát	٠.				gute	m			goten
- 19	ceóse .			ceás					cur	778			coren
Old Frisian	kiusa			kâs					kera	m			keren
Old Norse	kiosa			kau	8				kus	um			kosinn

#### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. dis-hniupa, break, dirumpo; hiufa, weep, fleo; sniva, hasten, go, come, verto, vado, for †sniua, perf. sing. snau, plur. snivum, snevum for snuum, perf. part. snivans for †snuans; giuta, pour out (Germ. gieße; fundo); biuda, offer (Germ. biete); driusa, fall, cado; kiusa, choose (Germ. kiese; eligo); fra-liusa, loose (Germ. ver-liere; perdo); biuga, bend (Germ. biege; flecto); liuga, lie (Germ. luege; mentior); ga-lüka, lock, claudo; tiuah, tug, pull (Germ. ziehe, traho).

Old High German. chliupu, cleave, findo; súfu, drink (Germ. saufe; bibo); triufu, drop (Germ. träufe; stillo); chiuwu, chew (Germ. kaue; mando); piutu, offero; siudu, seethe (Germ. siede; coquo); hiuzu, pour out (Germ. gieße; fundo); chiusu, choose (Germ. kiese; eligo); vliuzu, flow (Germ. fließe, fluo); sliuzu, lock (Germ. schließe; claudo); liusu, loose (Germ. ver-liere; perdo); vriusu, freeze (Germ. friere; gelo); piuku, flecto; vliuku, fly (Germ. fließe; volo); vliuhu, flee (Germ. fließe; fugio); ziuhu, traho; liuku, mentior.

Old Saxon. hiufu, ploro; cliufu, findo; gintu, fundo; niutu, enjoy (Germ. ge-nieße; fruor); biudu, offero; driusu, cado; kiusu, eligo; far-liusu, perdo; liugu, mentior; lūku, claudo; riuku, reek (Germ. rauche; fumo); tiuhu, traho.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> δ chiefly before dentals and sibilants.

Anglo-Saxon. creópe, creep, repo; deófe, mergo (Germ. taufe); sceófe, trudo; reófe, rumpo; breóne, brew (Germ. braue); ceóne, chew (Germ. kaue, manduco); hreóne, rue (Germ. reue; pænitet me); breóle, break, frango; geóte, pour out, fundo; neóte, enjoy, fruor (Germ. ge-nieße); sceóte, shoot (Germ. schieße; jaculor); beóle, offero (Germ biete); sceóte, seethe, boil (Germ. siede; coquo); ceóse, choose (Germ. kiese; eligo); freose, freeze, gelo; for-leóse, loose, perdo; lúce, lock, claudo; súce, sugo (Germ. sauge); reóce, exhalo, reek (Germ. rauche); smeóce, fumo, smoke (Germ. schmauche); beóge, bend (Germ. biege; flecto); dreóge, ago; fleóge, volo, fly (Germ. fliege); leóge, mentior, lie (Germ. luege); fleóhe, flee (Germ. fliehe; fugio); teóhe, traho, tug (Germ. ziehe); seó, colo; teó, arguo; þeó, proficio; wreó, proficio, perf. seáh, teáh, þeáh, wreáh, plur. sugon, tugon, þugon, wrugon.

Old Frisian. driupe, stillo; kriapa, repere; niata, uti; skiata, jaculari; slúta, claudere; biada, offerre; kiasa, eligere; liasa, perdere; liaka, claudere.

Old Norse. briota, frangi; fliuga, volare; luka, claudere; kiosa, eligere; driupa, stillare; fliota, fluere; niota, frui; liuga, mentiri.

Some of the verbs which apply the gradation without reduplication have the radical a which, under various circumstances, was variously affected in the different tenses. Where the radical was protected by an ancient reduplication, it is still preserved in the present tense, as in fara, from an ancient fa-fara; these verbs have the perfect in  $\delta$ , as  $f\delta r$ , probably from a primitive fu-fara. In those verbs in which the radical a was not sheltered in the present tense by reduplication, it was weakened into i, as giba, stila, hilpa, probably from a more ancient gaba, stala, halpa; in the perfect singular the pure short radical is preserved, perhaps also under the influence of reduplication, as halp, stal, gab, from a more ancient ha-halp, sta-stal, ga-gab. In the plural perfect some have e', the first gradation of a, others weaken the radical a to u. The verbs which gradate the radical to  $\vec{e}$  in the plural, weaken it to i or to u in the perfect participle. Thus then the different modifications of the radical give rise to four more classes, the vocalic system of which is as follows.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare pp. 400-403, A, B, C, and D.

## CLASS VII. (Grimm VII.)

		 			۲-		 	′		
Radical a:-	_									
	Pres.		Perf.	8	ng.		Perf. Pl	ur.		Perf. Part.
Gothic	а.		8.				8			a
O. H. Germ.	a		uo				uo .			a
Old Saxon	a		8, u	0			ô, uo			a
Anglo-Saxon	a, ea		ô.				ô			a
Old Frisian	a, e		8.				ô			a, e
Old Norse	a	•	8.	•	•	•	ô	•	•	a, e
Examples :-	_									
Gothic	fara		fôr				förum			farans
O. H. Germ.	varu		vuoi	٠.			vuorum	ê8		varanêr
Old Saxon	faru						fôrun			
Anglo-Saxon										
Old Frisian										
							förum			

#### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. us-ana, expire; standa, stand, sto, perf. stôp; fara, go, travel (Germ. fâre; proficiscor); svara, swear (Germ. schwoere; juro); graba, dig (Germ. grâbe; fodio); hafja, lift (Germ. hebe; tollo); frapja, understand, know, sapio; skapa, create (Germ. schaffe; creo); rapja, count, reckon, numero; skapja, damage, scathe (Germ. schade; noceo); saka, scold, increpo; hlahja, laugh (Germ. lache; rideo); slaha, slay (Germ. schlage; percutio); vahsja, grow, wax (Germ. wachsen; cresco).

Old High German. stantu, sto; varu, vehor; suerju, juro; krapu, fodio; skafu, creo; heffu, tollo; wasku, wash (Germ. wasche; lavo); traku, bear (Germ. trage; porto); slahu, percutio; hlahhu, rideo; wahsu, cresco.

Old Saxon. standu, faru, skapu, grabu; hebbju, tollo; skaku, shake, quatior; dragu, porto; hlahu, rideo; slahu, cædo; wahsu, cresco.

Anglo-Saxon. gale, sing, cano; stande, sto; fare, eo; swerige, juro; scape, creo; hebbe, elevo; grafe, fodio; wasce, lavo; scace, shake, quatio; bace, bake, pinso; tace, take, prehendo; drage, porto, drag; sleahe, slay, cædo; hleahhe, laugh, rideo; weaxe, grow, wax, cresco.

Old Frisian. fara, skapa, vaxa, draga, slaga, perf. sloch.

Old Norse. gala, canere; standa, stare; fara, proficisci; svara, jurare; skapa, creare; grafa, fodere; hafa, tollere; vaða, ire, perf. 68; vaxa, crescere, perf. 6x; skaka, concutere; taka, capere; draga, ferre—all these have the pres. in e; deya, die, moriri, perf. d6, part. ddinn; geya, latrare; fla, from flaga, flay, excorire, pres. fla,

perf. sing. flô, plur. flôgum, part. fleginn: in the same manner klæja, laugh, ridere; slå from slaka, slay, percutere.

### CLASS VIII. (Grimm X.)

Radical a:-	_						·			•				
	Pres.			1	Perf.	Si	ng.			Perf. Plu	ur.			Perf. Part.
Gothic O. H. Germ. Old Saxon	i, ë . i, e .	:	:	:	a . a .	:	:	:	:	â â	:	:	:	ë ë
Anglo-Saxon Old Frisian Old Norse	i, e .				a, e					á, i .				i, e
Examples:-	_													
Gothic O. H. Germ.	kipu				kap					kâpum	âе			këp <b>anë</b> r
Old Sazon Anglo-Sazon	gife .				geaf	٠.	•			geâfon				gifa
Old Frisian Old Norse	jëfa .				jef					æton jêfon gâfum				jëfen
Old Norse	geja .	•	•	•	$ga_{J}$	•	٠	•	•	gajum	٠	•	•	genna

## Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. giba, give (Germ. gebe; do); bi-gita, find, get, invenio; frita, devour (Germ. freße; voro); ita, eat (Germ. eße; edo); sita, sit (Germ. sitze; sedeo); bidja, pray (Germ. bitte; oro); truda, tread (Germ. trete; calco); mita, measure (Germ. meße; metior); in-vida, deny, abnego; qviba, say, dico; lisa, colligo (Germ. lese); ga-nisa, recover (Germ. ge-nese; sanor); visa, am, remain, maneo; ga-brika, break (Germ. breche; frango); liga, lie (Germ. lîge; jaceo); viga, move (Germ. be-wege; moveo, veho); fraiha, ask (Germ. frage; interrogo); saihva, see (Germ. sehe; video).

Old High German. kipu, dono; pittu, rogo; tritu, calco; quidu, dico; izu, edo; vrizu, voro; mizu, metior; sizu, sedeo; wisu, sum, existo; liku, jaceo; sihu, video.

Old Saxon. gibu, itu, bi-gitu, consequor; sittu, biddu, quithu, lisu, wisu, liggu, sihu, perf. plur. sahun and sawun, part. sewan.

Anglo-Saxon. gife; wëfe, weave (Germ. webe; texo); ëte, frëte, mete; on-gite, intelligo; sitte, trede, bidde, cwe'de, lese, genese, wese; wrece, wreak, ulciscor; licge; geseo, see (Germ. sehe; video), perf. sing. geseah, plur. gesawon, part. gesewen, gesegen, plur. gesene = gesewene.

Old Norse. gëfa, ëta; gëta, acquirere; sita; bida, petere; lësa, legere; vëra, only in the perf. var for vas; leka, leak, stillare;

frēga, interrogare, perf. sing. frd for frag, plur. frágum: in the same manner vēga, interficere; ligga, jacere; þigga, obtinere; síd, see, videre, = siha, sihva, pres. sé for së, plur. séum, perf. sd, plur. sáum, perf. part. weak sédr; troda, calcare, pres. tröd, perf. trad; sofa, to sleep, = svēfa, pres. séf for svēf, perf. svaf, plur. sváfum, part. sofinn for svefinn; vēfa, to weave, texere, perf. plur. váfum and ófum, part. ofinn for vēfinn; compare the analogous form koma=qvēma, Class XI.

## CLASS IX. (Grimm XI.)

Radical a:-	_					
	Pres.		Perf. Sing	g.	Perf. Plur	Perf. Part.
Gothic	ś		a		ð	. <b>u</b>
O. H. Germ.						
Old Saxon						
Anglo-Saxon						
Old Frisian						
Old Norse					â	
Examples :-	_					
Gothic	stila .		stal		stêlum.	. stulans
						. qvumans
,,						. Īaúrans
O. H. Germ.	stila .		stal		stâlumês	. stolanêr
Old Saxon	stila .		stal		stâlun .	. stolan
**	cumu		quam .		quâmu <b>m</b>	. cuman
Anglo-Saxon	stële .		stäl.		stælon .	. stolen
, ,,	cume		com, cwo	m.	cômon .	. cumen
Old Frisian	stëla.		stel		stêlon .	. stëlen
Old Norse	stëla.		stal		stâlum .	. stolinn
**	koma		kom, kva	im .	kvâmum	. kominn

#### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. stila, steal (Germ. stêle; furor); nima, take (Germ. nême; sumo); qvima, come (Germ. komme; venio); ga-timan, decere (Germ. ge-zîmen); baira, bear, fero; ga-taira, tear, destroy, destruo.

Old High German. stilu, nimu, quimu, ziman, piru, fero; ziru, consumo; sciru, shear (Germ. scheere, tondeo); rihhu, wreak (Germ. räche; ulciscor); prihhu, break (Germ. breche; frango); sprihhu, speak (Germ. spreche; loquor); stihhu, sting, prick (Germ. steche; pungo); vihtu, fight (Germ. fechte; certo); vlihtu, weave (Germ. flechte; plecto).

Old Saxon. stilu, nimu, cumu (venio), biru, briku, stiku (pungo). briku, spriku, wriku (persequor).

Anglo-Saxon. stële, nime, cume, bëre, scëre (tondeo), tëre (scindo), brëce, sprëce.

Old Frisian. Classes VIII and IX are identical, because the perfect participle has in both the weakened radical ë: bira, stës, nima, jëfa (dare), wësa (esse), brëka, sprëka.

Old Norse. stëla, nëma, koma for kvëma (venire), bëra, skën, tondeo; svëma (natare), svam, swaminn; erja (arare), ar, arine.

## CLASS X. (Grimm. XII.)

Radical a:-	_													
	Pres.				Perf. Sir	ıg.			Perf	. P	lur.			Perf. Part.
					a									
O. H. Germ.	i, ä.				a				u.					M, Ø
Old Saxon	í, ë .				a				u.					u, o
Anglo-Saxon														
Old Frisian	i, e .				a				u.					*
Old Norse	i, e, ia	•	•	•	a	•	•	•	<b>u</b> .	•	•	•	•	o, <b>u</b>
Examples :-	_													
Gothic	hilpa				halp.				hulj	pun				kulpans
,,														raurpans
O. H. Germ.	hilfu				half .				hulj	fun	ıê <b>s</b>			kolpanêr
,,	rinnu				rann				run	ทนา	nês			rungaêr
Old Saxon														holpan
"	rinnu				rann				run	n us	в.			runnan
Anglo-Saxon	hël p <b>e</b>				healp				hulj	mon				holpen
"	irne .				arn .				urn	on				urnen
1,	weorpe				wearp				wur	por	٠.			scorpes
Old Frisian	helpa				halp.				hul	юn				hulpen
٠,	winna				wann				wun	no	n			<i>પ</i> રસમ <i>ારમ</i>
Old Norse	rinna				rann				run	ทแก	n			runninn
.,	<b>s</b> kella				skall				ek ul	lur	n			skollinn

### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Gothic. hilpa, help (Germ. helfe; adjuvo); vilva, seize, rob, rapio; svilta, die, morior; gilda, am worth (Germ. gelte; rependo); brinna, burn (Germ. brenne; ardeo); du-qinna, be-gin (Germ. be-ginne; incipio); rinna, flow, run (Germ. rinne; fluo); spinna, spin (Germ. spinne; neo); vinna, suffer, patior; binda, bind (Germ. binde; necto); bi-vinda, wind (Germ. winde; circumdo); finha, find (Germ. finde; invenio); drigka, drink (Germ. trinke; bibo); bliggva, cut, kill, cædo; siggva, sing, read (Germ. singe; cano, lego); sigkva, sink, fall (Germ. sinke; cado); vaírpa, throw (Germ. werfe; jacio); hvaírba, walk, turn about, verto; gaírda, gird (Germ. gürte; cingo); vaírha, be-come (Germ. werde; fio).

Old High German. hilfu; tilfu, delf, fodio; kiltu, rependo; sciltu, scold (Germ. schelte; increpo); smilzu, smelt (Germ. schmelze; liquefio); suimmu, swim (Germ. schwimme; nato);

prinnu, ardeo; rinnu, fluo; spinnu, neo; winnu, laboro; pintu, necto; suintu, evanesco (Germ. schwinde); vindu, invenio; sinku, cano; sinhu, cado; stinhu, stink (Germ. stinke; oleo, odorem spargo); trinhu, bibo; huirpu, revertor; stirphu, die (Germ. sterbe; morior); wirfu, jacio; wirdu, fio.

Old Saxon. hilpu, dilbu, suiltu (morior), gildu, brinnu, biginnu, winnu, bindu, findu, singu, drinku, wirpu, huirbu, wirthu

(fio).

Anglo-Saxon. helpe, delfe, melte, swelte, gilde, perf. healp, &c.; on-ginne, incipio, perf. on-gan; spinne, winne, birne=brinne, perf. barn; irne=rinne, perf. ran; binde, perf. band; in the same manner grinde, grind, molo; swinde, tabesco (Germ. schwinde); winde, wind (Germ. winde; plecto); drince; swince, laboro; stince, oleo; bringe; singe; springe, salio; meorne, mourn, curo, angor, perf. mearn; in the same manner speorne, spurn (Germ. sporne; calcitro); weorpe, jacio; hweorfe, revertor; weorde, fio.

Old Frisian. hilpa, binda, finda, winna, berna (ardere), werpa,

wertha.

Old Norse. gialla, sing, shout, resonare; svëlta, esurire; velta, roll, turn, volvere; gialda, expendere; brenna, ardere; rënna, fluere; spinna, nere; vinna, laborare; finna, invenire; binda, ligare, perf. batt; winda, torquere; drecka, bibere, perf. drack; springa, salire, sprack; vërpa, jacere; vërda, fieri.

#### CONJUGATION.

#### General Remarks.

Conjugation teaches us to combine the various elements which we observed in the formation of the verb, so as to express correctly the different relations of a certain action. The action independent of all relations is expressed in the root. The verb, however, is not merely the expression of an action, but it renders at the same time an exact account as to the person by whom, the time when, the modus or condition under which, that action took place. In order to express those various relations of persons, time, modus, activeness, or passiveness—in short, to make the root a verb, it is necessary that secondary roots, or suffixes, be added to the primary root, and thus force it out of its indefiniteness, and impart to it life and individuality. A condition without which a verb is inconceivable is that of personality: without the personal suffixes or terminations a verbal root or

are in a time terme a term as a nominal root or themes st statut of automotive viral at the mass-signs. If then the per-- in terminant is up the mean executial of the vertal elements, that we will now definitions up to sufficient to oreste a verb out to the recurrence is the remainder more as to be ably to But in the state of the times a printed re, a binding to the first state of the state of the content and the communication with The service of the se Tive and the theme it sheme the verial theme, as on another which is very as the minute themes. The root flar requires the suffix and themes are suffix as with the personal termithe time and the true princers, single presided, blareaff. here we steak it in the little that transferenced it, and indeverifit it introduces and maint is, that is, in the indica-The model was a new terminal as immediately to the THE PERSON STATE OF THE TAKE CHASE CHASE OF Bhar-a-, - - ot note to make the bit it dependent on certain which he mis transmissions, that is, in the ortative and subin the entity will be beginned the ail it another suffix, which equipment of theme unlittle personal terminations. If To a to the oil core the amantive language used simply as-ti, But the same action of the state of the same action of the same is the same action of the same is the same and a perfect with the same action of the same and a perfect with the same and a perfect of the same state of the same st in the tresent weakens the raileal inter. hence the theme - -: in the terfect it will take the first gradation of rest balant form to a draging the thematic vowel of the present, the optative's fix is it, hence be-/a-; added to this the personal suffix - or ulliber of -, but appears as bereing; I have the presidence analytical course, given the Gothic present so that tive ist planal  $\gamma(x) := r_1 + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$ final  $\sigma$  is an inerganical little in the support the preceding  $m_{\tau}$  the latter is the personal termination of the 1st plural, i = yx the suffix of the optative mood, a the final of the present theme rig-a-, rig the weakened form of the root rag, primitive ragh,

Though we may recognize all these different elements in the Teutonic, and chiefly the Old Teutonic verb, they are not all of equal importance. We might indeed divide verbs into such as have the thematic suffix, and others that have not: but the

latter are so very few, as to render such classification impracticable. There are many ways to form the present theme, but out of the many the Teutonic languages have chosen a few, and these few became part and parcel of the inflexions or the conjugation, so that we cannot attempt to erect anything like the conjugational classes, as in Sanskrit for instance. That element however which truly and most distinctly characterizes the Teutonic verb, and places it in contraposition to the verb in all other Aryan languages, is the formation of the perfect. Though the sister-languages also have the gradation of the root, though most of them have the reduplicational system far more complete, yet nowhere do we find this element to enter so deeply into the whole organization of the language. We therefore unhesitatingly follow former grammarians and divide the whole conjugational system, according to the formation of the perfect, into two great classes. To the first conjugational class belong all those verbs which form the perfect by modifying the vowel of the root (mostly stem-verbs), to the second those which form the perfect by assuming an auxiliary suffix-verb (derivative verbs). former, which the Teutonic languages have, partly at least, in common with their cognate sisters, we may fairly call the 'Old Form,' because it must have existed before the separation of the Aryan tribes; the latter the 'New Form,' because it is peculiar to the Teutonic languages, and must have been created after the Aryan separation. The verbs of the old form have a simple perfect, consisting of but one word; those of the new form have a compound perfect, consisting of the verb and its suffixed auxiliary verb. Grimm calls the former the 'Strong Conjugation,' because the verbs belonging to it form their perfect by means lying in the root itself, gradation, &c.; the latter 'Weak Conjugation,' because its verbs form the perfect with the assistance of an auxiliary. We do not see any cause why we should not follow the last-mentioned terms, which have been applied by the father of Teutonic philology, which, moreover, are sufficient to keep up the distinction and serve the purpose quite as well as any other terms as yet proposed.

# I. PARADIGM TO THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

# PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Gothic.	O. H. Germ.	Old Saxon.	AngSax.	O. Fris.	Old Norse.
Sing.  1st finh-a 2nd finh-i-s 3rd finh-i-h	find-u find-i-s find-i-t	find-u find-is find-i-d	find-e-st	find-e find-e-et find-e-tk	finn-r
Plun.  1st find-a-m  2nd find-i-d  3rd find-a-nd	find-a-mês find-a-t find-a-nt	find-a-d	find-a-5	find-a-th find-a-th find-a-th	finn-i-5
Dual. 1st finþ-ós 2nd finþ-a-is	::	::	::		::

# PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing.  1st finh-au  2nd finh-ai-s  3rd finh-ai	finde   find-ê-s   find-e	find-a (e) find-a-s (es) find-a (e)	find-e find-e find-e	find-e find-e find-e	finn-i finn-i-r finn-i
PLUR.  1st finh-ai-m-a 2nd finh-ai-h 3rd finh-ai-n-a	find-ê-t	find-a-n (en) find-a-n find-a-n	find-e-n find-e-n find-c-n	find-e find-e find-e	finn-i-m finn-i-s finn-i
DUAL.					
1st finh-ai-v-a	::	1	:: `	1	1
2nd <i>finb-ai-ts</i>	1	::	1	١	l

# PRESENT PASSIVE.

#### Gothic.

Indicative.	Subjunctive.
Sing. 1st finl-a-da	fin b-ai-dau
2nd finb-a-za	fin p-ai-zau
3rd fin)-a-da	fin)-ai-dau
Plur. 1st finb-a-n a	fin þ-a <b>i-n</b> dau
2nd finh-a-nda	fin p-ai-ndau
3rd finb-a-nda	finþ-vi-ndau

# IMPERATIVE.

Pi.us.  Ist find-a-m  Ind find-i-d find-a-t find-ad find-a-8 find-a-th  Dual.  Infinitive.  Sing.  Ind-a-n find-a-n find-a-n find-a-n find-a  Plus.	finn finn-i-G
Int find   find   find   find   find    I. ur.  Int find-a-m          Ind find-a-i   find-a-i   find-a-i   find-a-i    UAL.  2nd find-a-is          INFINITIVE.  Sing.  2nd find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a    Plur.  2nd find-a-nd-s   find-a-nd   find-e-nd-s   find-a-nd	•
Ist find-a-m and find-i-d find-a-t find-ad find-a-t find-a-th  DUAL.  2nd find-a-ts	 finn-i-15 
Ist find-a-m and find-i-d find-a-t find-a-d find-a-d find-a-th  DUAL. and find-a-ts	finn-i-V
Dual.  2nd find-a-ts            Infinitive.  Sing.  2nd find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a    Plue.  2nd find-a-nd-s   find-a-nt-sr   find-a-nd   find-e-nd-e   find-a-nd	jinn-i-8 ••
Infinitive.  Sing.  2nd find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a    Plur.  2nd find-a-nd-s   find-a-nt-sr   find-a-nd   find-e-nd-e   find-a-nd	••
Infinitive.  Sing.  2nd finh-a-n   find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a    Plue.  2nd finh-a-nd-s   find-a-nt-sr   find-a-nd   find-e-nd-e   find-a-nd	••
Sing.  2nd find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a   Plus.  2nd find-a-nd-s   find-a-nt-sr   find-a-nd   find-e-nd-e   find-a-nd	
2nd fin)-a-n   find-a-n   find-a-n   find-a   PLUR. 2nd fin)-a-nd-s   find-a-nt-sr   find-a-nd   find-e-nd-e   find-a-nd	
PLUR.  2nd fin)-a-nd-s   find-a-nt-sr   find-a-nd   find-e-nd-e   find-a-nd	finn-a
and fin)-a-nd-s   find-a-nt-fr   find-a-nd   find-e-nd-e   find-a-nd	J
Present Indicative	finn-a-nd-i
I REIERIE INDICATIVE.	
Sing.	
1st fan)   fand   fand   fand   fand   2nd fans-t   fund-i   fund-i   fund-e   fund-	fa <b>nn</b> fann-t
and fanet   fund-i   fund-i   fund-e   fund-e   fund-e   fund   f	jann-i fann
PLUR.	,
1st funb-u-m   fund-u-mês   fund-u-n   fund-o-n   fund-o-n	funn-u-m
and funb-u-b   fund-u-t   fund-u-n   fund-o-n   fund-o-n   j	funn-u-T
3rd fund-u-n   fund-u-n   fund-o-n   fund-o-n	funn-u
DUAL.	
Ist funb-u	••
and fund-u-ts	••
PRETERITE SUBJUNCTIVE.	
Sing.  1st funb-jau   fund-i   fund-i   fund-e   fund-e   J	fynn-i
and fund-ei-s fund-i-s fund-e fund-e	fynn-i-r
3rd fund-i fund-i fund-e fund-e	fynn-i
PLUR.	
Ist funb-ei-m-a   fund-î-mês   fund-î-n   fund-e-n   fund-e-n   j	fynn-i-m
2nd funb-ei-b   fund-î-t   fund-î-n   fund-e-n   fund-e-n   j	fynn-i-8
3rd fund-ei-n-a   fund-i-n   fund-i-n   fund-e-n   fund-e-n   j	fynn-i
DUAL.	
1st funb-el-v-a	••
2nd funp-ci-ts	••
PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.	
fund-a-n-e   ga-fund-a-   fund-a-n   fund-e-n   fund-en   .	
n-êr	funn-i-nn

# II. PARADIGM TO THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

# PRESENT INDICATIVE.

	O. H. Germ.	Old Saxon.	Anglo-Sax.	Old Frisian.	OId I	Norse.
	hilf-u hilf-i-e	hilp-u hilp-i-s	kelp-e kilp-e-st	kias-e kios-e-st	kgs kgs	tek tek-r
3rd	hilf-i-t	kilp-i-d	hilp-e-5	kios-c-th	kýs	tek-r
2nd	hëlf-a-mes hëlf-a-t hëlf-a-nt	këlp a-d	kdp-a-5 kdp-a-5 kdp-a-5	kias-a-th kias-a-th kias-a-th	kios-u-m kios-i-t kios-a	tök-u-m tak-i-5 tak-a
		Pri	SENT SUE	JUNCTIVE.		
2nd 3rd	hölf-e hölf-8-e hölf-e	help-a help-a-s help-a	help-e help-e help-e	kias-e kias-e kias-e	kios-i kios-i-r kios-i	taki tak-i-r tak-i
2nd	hölf- <b>i més</b> hölf-ö-t hölf- <del>ö-</del> n	help-a-n help-a-n help-a-n	help-e-n help-e-n help-e-n	kias-e kias-e kias-e	kios-i-m kios-i-ti kios-i	tak-i-n tak-i-5 tak-i
			Impera:	rive.		
SING. 2nd	hilf	hilp	help	kios	kios	tak
PLUR. 2nd	helf-a-t	help-a-d	help-a-ŏ	kias-a-th	kias-a-8	tak-i-ð
			Infinit	IVE.		
SING. 2nd	hëlf <b>-a</b> -n	help-a-n	help-a-n	kias-a	kios-a	tak-a
		Pr	ESENT PA	RTICIPLE.		
	helf-a-nt-ér	help-a-nd	help-e-nd-e	kias-a-nd	kios-a-nd-i	tak-a-nd
		Pre	TERITE IN	DICATIVE.		
2nd	half hulf-i half	halp   hulp-i   halp	healp hulp-e healp	kâs † kere kâs	kaus kaus-t kaus	tók tók-t tók
2nd	hulf-u-mê* hulf-u-t hulf-u-n	hulp-u-n	hulp-o-n hulp-o-n hulp-o-n	ker-o-n ker-o-n ker-o-n	kus-u-m kus-u-t kus-u	tók-u-m tók-u-ð tók-u

#### PRETERITE SUBJUNCTIVE.

	O. H. Germ.	Old Saxon.	Anglo-Sax.	O. Fris.	Old Norse.			
2nd	hulf-i hulf î-s hulf-i	kulp-i hulp-i-s hulp-i	hulp-e hulp-e hulp-e	ker-e ker-e ker-e	kys-i kys-i-r kys-i	toek-i toek-i-r toek-i		
2nd	hulf i-mês hulf i-t hulf-i-n	hulp-î-n hulp-î-n hulp-î-n	hulp-e-n hulp-e-n hulp-e-n	ker-e ker-e ker-e	kys-i-m kys-i-ð kys-i	toek-i-m toek-i-S toek-i		

#### PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.

ga-holf-a-n-êr | holp-a-n | holp-e-n | ker-en | kos-i-nn tek-i-nn

#### REMARKS ON THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

#### I. The vowels of the Ablaut.

1. In Old High German the reduplicational vowel is rendered in different documents according to dialectic differences. Isidor (eighth century) uses ea, eo; Tatian (ninth) ie, io, Otfried (ninth) ia for io, as ua for uo; Notker (tenth) ie, io; the Vienna Gospel of St. Matthew (eighth) é, io.

Old Saxon uses as reduplicational vowel  $\ell$ , where the root itself has the high-sounding a or  $\ell$ ; in Class IV, where the radical is the dark-sounding  $\delta$  or uo, we find the diphthongal preterite io, weakened to ie.

Anglo-Saxon has, as reduplicational vowel of the preterite,  $\ell$ , or  $\ell \delta$ , the former chiefly in verbs which have n or  $\ell$  after the radical  $\alpha$ .

Old Frisian uses the contractions  $\ell$  and  $\ell$ , the former exclusively in Class I if the radical is followed by a consonantal combination with n; in all other cases the reduplicational vowel is  $\ell$ . It is doubtful whether in Class IV the vowel of the preterite was the diphthongal io.

Old Norse, on the whole, follows the analogy of the Low German dialects.

2. There is in most Teutonic languages in the present singular of Classes VIII, IX, and X of the strong conjugation an alternation of i and  $\ddot{e}$  as vowels of the root, which the student will easily explain on referring to the phonetic laws mentioned under the respective letters.

Thus we find in Old High German hilfu, nimu, hilfu, nimu, because the vowel of the root is followed by i or u of the prepreceding syllable — but hēlfamés, nēmamés, hēlfat, nēmat, ke, because the vowel of the root is followed by a in the succeeding syllable. The same alternation of sound takes place in the preterite participle of Class IX between u and o, directed by the same law as that of i and ē, and in the present tense of Class VI, between iu and its weakened form io. (See the diphthong in.) Of these changes nothing is observed in Gothic.

Old Saxon submits to the same laws as Old High German, but where a contraction takes place, the original w is preserved in the participle preterite of Class IX, as cuman from criman.

Anglo-Saxon, which in its phonetic changes is far more capricious than any other dialect, follows in this also a few rules of its own. The vowels i of the present, a of the preterite singular, w of the preterite plural remain intact in but few instances, that is, if followed by doubled m or n, or by either of the two combined with a mute, where a however is found to turn into o. But e, eo, are used in the present; ä, ea in the preterite singular, and o in the preterite participle. In Classes VIII and IX those verbs only preserve the i of the present which end in m, besides a few others, such as kipan (hiare), gifan (to give), gitan (to get), &c., and the strong verbs which form the present theme in ja, as biddan, to bid, beg, &c. The preterite shows the regular vowels a,  $\hat{a} = \text{Goth. } a$ ,  $\hat{e}$ , only in nime, nam, namon, piege, pah; but plur. pægon; liege, preterite sing. läg, but plur. lågon and lægon; geseo, geseah, gesavon. All others have ä in the singular, a in the plural of the preterite. In the present of Classes VIII, IX and X, i and e, eo, interchange in the same manner and after the same rules as in Old High German and Old Saxon, except that the 1st sing, indicative and the 2nd sing, imperative have always e, eo, the weakened form of i, as helpe, hilpst, hilps, plur. helpa8, imperative help; steorfe, stirfst, stirf8, plural steorfa8, imperative steorf. An interchange between in and io in the present of Class VI cannot take place, because the diphthong iu occurs regularly in the weakened form eó.

Old Frisian preserves the i of the present, Class X, before double n, or n with a mute. The preterite participle has always the original u; but once worpen for wurpen. The i of the present, Classes VIII and IX is kept up in verbs which form the present theme in ja, before m in nima, and in verbs which end in a vowel; e. g. sia (to see), skia (to happen); but ia (to confess) has e in the present. The same classes have the a of the singular and a of the plural preterite before m; but they may pass into

o, 6, respectively. (See letter a, o, Old Frisian.) The preterite participle of the verbs of Class IX having rejected the radical o (x), and adopted that of the present, a distinction between the Classes VIII and IX no longer exists, and they may be considered as identical.

The alternation or interchange of i and e in different persons of the present is unknown in Old Frisian, the vowel adopted in the infinitive keeping its place throughout the present tense. But Class VI uses the interchange of io (iu) and ia on the same conditions as the other dialects already mentioned; but, like Anglo-Saxon, it has the weakened form too in the 1st sing. present. Old Norse shows the i in the present of Class X if a verb ends in n, or n combined with a mute; also in the verb spirna, to spurn; but ë we find in brënna, to burn, and rënna, to run. The verbs gialla (to shout, sing), gialda (rependere), and skialfa (to tremble), retain the ia in the infinitive, plural indicative, and throughout the subjunctive. In the preterite participle all verbs ending with n, or n with a mute, have u; brënna and renna also take u; all others, spirna too, have o. In Classes VIII and IX we find the i of the present only with strong verbs which form the present theme in ja; also in svima (to swim), which occurs side by side with svema. An interchange or alternation between i and e, or iu and io, in different persons of the present, does not take place.

- 3. Some verbs of Class VI have condensed the in of the present into d, as Gothic. O. H. Germ. sufu, bibo (Germ. saufe); saku, suck (Germ. sauge; sugo); lúhhu, lock, claudo. O. S. lácan, to lock. A. S. brúcan, to use; hrútan, to fall; súpan, to drink; sácan, to suck; stúnan, strepere; strútan, populari; lúcan, to lock. O. Fris. láka, to lock; skúva, protrudere; slúta, to lock (O. H. Germ. sliuzu); sprúta, to sprout. O. N. lúca, súpa and siupa, sorbere; súga and siuga, to suck.
- 4. The preterites of Classes V and VI, in Old High German, condense their diphthongs ei, ou, into the long vowels  $\acute{e}$ ,  $\acute{o}$ , respectively, the former before w, h, the latter before h, r, s, and dental mutes; in Anglo-Saxon, on the contrary, the a of the present and  $\acute{o}$  of the preterite are dissolved into two vowels, namely ea and eo, e, g. sceapan, sceop, sleahan, sleoh.
- 5. Verbs of Class VII in Old Norse, which end with a guttural (k, g), have in the preterite participle e instead of a.
- Umlaut affects the verbal stem more or less in the conjugation of the Old Teutonic verb.

Gothic of course repudiates this as well as any other Umlaut. In Old High German the Umlaut of a into e may take place in the present of Class II (reduplicated verbs) and Class VII, if an i follows in the second syllable, e. g. walls, 2nd wallis or wellis; varu, 2nd varis or veris. As in general, so also in the verb, old documents preserve the original a, more recent ones adopt more largely the Umlaut.

Old Saxon favours occasionally this modification of sound in the 2nd and 3rd sing, present of Classes II and III, just like Old

High German; e.g. waldu, 2nd weldis, 3rd weldid.

the infinitive drega and the participle dregin.

Anglo-Saxon admits of Umlaut in the 2nd and 3rd sing. present, even if the final vowel which caused the Umlaut has suffered syncope. In this manner a is modified into  $e(\ddot{a})$ ; d into a; eb, ea, al, into a; b into a; el, and sing. pres. kat, blote, 3rd sing. blete, sceote, 3rd sing. scot; fare, 3rd sing. fero, faro.

Old Frisian seems to do without the Umlaut in its verbal inflexions. Though forms occur such as 1st fere, 2nd ferest, 3rd fereth, plur. farath, it would no doubt be preferable to explain the e as a weakening rather than Umlaut of the a, for the e occurs in the preterite participle ferin too, where it is no Umlaut, but the inorganic representative of an original a; thus also

Old Norse, which favours Umlaut in every possible position, makes use of it largely in the conjugation of the verb throughout the singular of the present indicative and the whole of the preterite subjunctive. We find it therefore in all reduplicated verbs (except Class III, of course), and in all the remaining classes, except V, because the ei of Class III and the i of Class V are not capable of Umlaut. Verbs of Class VII, which in consequence of dropping an h, end in a, have in the singular present the Umlaut a, as sla (to strike, slay) from slaha, present sla; fla (to flay), present fla; hla (to laugh), present hla. Umlaut of a into ö occurs with verbs of Classes II and VII in the 1st plur. present; with the former only if they have ia in the infinitive, as gialla, 1st plur. giöllum; gialda, giöldum: but skialfa makes skialfum.

## II. The consonants affected by the inflexions.

1. The consonants of the theme or stem are variously affected in the different dialects by the terminations of the persons. We have already seen that in Gothic, before the t of the personal termination of the 2nd sing. preterite, a dental of the stem preceding it must be changed into s.

In Anglo-Saxon the connective (thematic) vowel almost regularly suffers syncope in the 2nd and 3rd sing. present indicetive, and the consonants of the termination and those of the stem or theme are joined directly, the former influencing the latter to a certain degree. As to the 2nd person we have to **notice** the following facts. Before the termination -st no dental can keep its position except t; d and  $\delta$  are dropped; the combination nd is changed into nt. Hence hladan, blôtan, cwedan, standan, make the 2nd sing. hle-st, blet-st, cwi-st, stent-st. In the same manner a final s or st of the stem is dropped before the st of the termination; e. g. cf-st from ceosan, bir-st from berstan. As to the 3rd person the following rule must be observed: The **8** of the personal termination is dropped after a t or st of the stem, e.g. blet for blet-8, birst for birst-8; the terminational 8 following d, both are rendered by t, as hlet for hledo, stent for stend-8; 8 preceded by s, both make st, as cfst for cfs-8; a 8 of the stem is dropped before of the termination, e.g. cwi-of for cwid-d.

Old Frisian. As to the 2nd person the same rules hold good, that is, no dental but t remains before the termination st; -d-st, -th-st, -s-st, -st-st, are all contracted into st; hence halda, halst; finda, finst: xst becomes xt, as wext from wax-a. In the 3rd person the termination th is contracted with a preceding d into t, as halt, fint; with a preceding t into t; with a preceding th into th; with a preceding x to xt.

Old Norse. The r of the 2nd sing. is assimilated to a preceding l or n of the stem; it remains after ll and nn. If the stem ends with an s, r, rr, it is dropped altogether, and the 2nd and 3rd persons become identical in form with the 1st. In the 2nd sing. preterite before the personal termination t a final dental of the stem is changed into z, e.g. léz-t from lát-a, galz-t from gialda, quaz-t from queð-a; but the 2nd of the preterite, stód (from standan) is stótt. A preterital form which after dropping an h or g, ends in a long vowel, has also tt in the 2nd sing., e.g. sló for slóh (from slahan), 2nd preterite slótt.

2. Rhotacism greatly affects the terminational s of the stem in the bisyllabic or polysyllabic forms of the plural preterite, especially in verbs belonging to Classes V and VI, where the change seems to be less obstructed by the preceding short vowel than it is in the singular by the long radical; e. g. vriosan (to freeze), preterite plur. vrurumés, part. vroranér; kiosan (to choose), preterite sing. kôs, 2nd kuri, 3rd kôs, plur. kurumés, part. koranér;

rísan (decidere), present sing. reis, 2nd riri, 3rd reis, plur. rirumés, part. riranér; wësan (to be), was, warumés, part. wësanér, and a few others.

In Old Saxon we have only one instance of rhotacism in Class VIII, i. e. wësan (to be), was, warun, wësan; several of Class VI, i. e. kiosan, kos, kuri, kos, plur. kurun, part. koran, and for-liosan, to loose.

Anglo-Saxon offers but few examples, namely wësan, wäs, wære, wäs, plur. wæron, part. wësan; ceósan, ceás, cure, ceás, plur. curon, part coren; thus also freósan (to freeze), for-leósan (to loose), hreósan (ruere).

Old Frisian adopted rhotacism in the plural preterite, e.g. wesa, was, weron, wesen; kiasa, kas, keron, keren; in the same

manner ur-liusa, to loose.

Old Norse. Rhotacism throughout in vera (to be), var, várum, verinn by the side of the Gothic visa, vas, vésum, visans; it may also occur in friosa (to freeze) and kiosa (to choose), which have the preterite plur. frurum, kurum, part. frerinn, kerinn, by the side of frusum, kusum, frosinn, kosinn.

3. GEMINATION, or a double consonant occurring in the middle of a word, is dissolved into the single consonant at the end of the word, and after a long radical, e.g. Old High German spinnan, span; wallan, wialumés.

Old Saxon rinnan, ran, thrinnan, thran; reduplicated verbs may have the single consonant or its gemination, e.g. fallan,

pret. fél and féll.

The same law holds good for Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian, where gemination, moreover, is dissolved into the single consonant before the consonants of the termination.

Old Norse does not obey this law. Gemination is, on the contrary, produced in Old Norse in the singular preterite and in the imperative, where ng is changed into kk, and nd into tt; e.g. fanga (to catch), preterite sing. fêkk, imperative fakk; springa (to jump), preterite sprakk, imperative sprikk; except sgnga, slynga, which make saung, slaung; blanda (to mix, blend), present blêtt, imperative blatt; hrinda (trudere), preterite hratt, imperative hritt.

4. The media, when final, is often exchanged for the tenuis, especially in the preterite singular, often in the plural too; e.g. Old High German quëdan (to say), preterite singular quat, plural quatumes and quadumés; snidan (to cut), preterite sneit, plural snitumés, participle snitanér.

Thus also in Old Norse ld, when at the end of the monosyllabic preterite, is converted into lt, e. g. falda, félt; gialda, galt.

5. The spirant h and the media g are in close relationship in

many verbs.

In Old High German an h belonging to the root is replaced by g in the preterite plural (rarely in the singular) and in the preterite participle; e. g. slahan (to slay), pret. sing. sluoh, or sluog, plur. sluogumés, part. slaganér; zihan (to accuse), pret. zéh, plur. zigumés, part. ziganér.

In Old Saxon the g is used regularly in the preterite singular

too; e.g. slahan, slog, slogum, but the part. slahan.

Anglo-Saxon makes, like Old High German, sleahan, 1st sloh, 2nd sloge, 3rd sloh, plur. slogon, part. slagen, where the media

creeps into the 2nd singular.

In Old Norse the h of the root has commonly been dropped, but reappears again in the form of g in the bisyllabic forms of the preterite; e.g. sld (to slay) for slaha, plur. preterite slogum (also sloum), preterite part. sloginn; thus also klaa (fricare), and klaa (to laugh).

- 6. The occurrence of both the spirants k and w in the Old Saxon preterites sáhun and sáwun, and farliwi from farlihan (concedere), may be explained by the Gothic forms saihvan, leikvan, from which Anglo-Saxon adopted either one or the other of the spirants. A similar exchange we observe in the A.S. seon (to see) for seohan, preterite 1st seah, 2nd sáwe, 3rd seah, plur. sáwon.
- 7. Syncope of h is frequent in the present and infinitive of Anglo-Saxon verbs, where it is dropped together with the thematic vowel; e.g. slean, pwean, seon for sleahan, pweahan, seohan. Some write slean, seon, &c., considering the case one of contraction rather than of syncope.
- 8. The reverse of the case we have considered under 5 is given in Anglo-Saxon verbs, the radical of which is followed by g. Wherever the media has to take its position at the end of the word or before the inflexional consonants, it is changed into h; e.g. stige, ascend, 2nd stih-st, 3rd stih-5, plur. stigat, pret. stah; plur. stigon; belge, bilhst, bilht, pret. bealh, plur. bulgon. In the combination ng the g remains intact.
- 9. The relation between  $\delta$  and d is this, that the former is replaced by the latter in the bisyllabic forms of the preterite, e.g. cwe\delta n, to say, pret. cw\alpha\delta, 2nd cw\alpha de, 3rd cw\alpha\delta, plur. cw\alpha don, part. cweden.

10. In Old Norse the g is often dropped in the preterite, and if so, the ei is condensed into é, and au into ó, and the Ablaut of the singular remains in the plural too. Thus kniga may have the preterite kneig, knigum, or kné, knigum; smiuga, may have smaug, smugum, or smó, smóum. The combination gð is dropped in the sing. preterite. brá of bregða, and the plural again is brugðum. The verb höggva (to hew, cut) has the sing. preterite kio; in all other instances the gg of this verb is preserved, but the v is dropped, and yet the Umlaut it has caused remains; hence the forms—pres. indic. högg, högg-r, högg-r, plur. höggum, höggvið, höggva, pres. subj. höggvið, pret. indic. kio, pret. subj. hioggvi, imper. högg, plur. höggvið. Spúa (to spit) makes the preterite spio, plur. spioggum; thus also búa (to inhabit), bio, bioggum.

## III. Isolated changes.

- 1. The Gothic language changes the vowel i into at before k and r, the vowel u into au; this phenomenon is known as Brechung, 'a break!.' It occurs in verbs too; hence the forms bairga for 'birga, baurgum for 'burgum, lathvum for lihvum, plauhans for pluhans; and vocalic systems such as baira, bar, berum, baurans, and leihva, laihv, lathvum, lathvans, will be easily understood.
- 2. The thematic vowel is, as a rule, preserved in the present, but dropped in the preterite. All the ancient dialects, except Old Norse, have it intact in the 1st and 3rd plural, and (except Gothic and Old Norse) in the 2nd plural present indicative; all weaken it to i, or still further to e, in the 2nd and 3rd singular, Gothic also in the 2nd plural. The 1st sing. present indicative ends in the thematic a in Gothic, while Old High German and Old Saxon weaken it to u, Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian to e; Old Norse drops it altogether. The last-mentioned dialect drops it in the 2nd and 3rd sing. also, and joins the personal termination r=s directly to the root. In the 1st pers. plur. Old Norse weakens the thematic a to u. The preterite in all the dialects drops the thematic a and adds the termination of the 2nd sing. directly to the root, or rather the perfect theme. In the plural the personal terminations join the perfect theme by means of the connective vowel u, which has nothing to do with the thematic a. The connective u is in Anglo-Saxon and Old Frisian regularly, in the other dialects occasionally, weakened to o.
  - 3. The Gothic verb trudan (to tread, calcare), of Class VIII,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See p. 33.

has in the present the radical u instead of i. Bopp considers this to be the weakened form of a, while Grimm adopts for this verb an Ablaut of its own, namely truda, trad, trodum, trudans. We follow Bopp by inserting it among the regular verbs of Class VIII.

- 4. Verbs in -na are inflected after the strong conjugation in the present, and after the weak in the perfect tense. In the former the a of the suffix na is treated like the thematic a mentioned above; in the perfect it is gradated to 6, and thus is formed the suffix n6 which acts as connective between the root and the weak terminations. Of this formation we have only fragments left in the other Teutonic languages. (See Formation of the Present Suffix -na-.) The most common verbs of this class are, af-hvapnan, extingui; af-d6lnan, obmutescere; af-lifnan, superesse; dis-hnaupnan, rumpi; dis-skritnan, findi; fra-gistnan, feriri; ga-hailan, sanari; ga-staurknan, rigescere; ga-nipnan, moerere; ga-qiunan, revivescere; ga-paursnan, arescere; ga-plasnan, turbari.
- 5. Concerning the strong verbs in -ja we have only to mention that in their conjugation they differ in nothing from other strong verbs; in the present they treat the a of ja in the same manner as the thematic a. As to the contraction of the thematic ja in some of the Teutonic languages and other points in connexion with this formation, see p. 391.
- 6. The verb snivan (to go) for 'snivan, Sanskrit root snu, has the preterite singular of Class VI, snau; but the plur. snevum by the side of the regular snivum: in the same manner divan, to die, mori.
- 7. standan (stare), root stath, stad, from sta, drops the infix -n-in the preterite and makes stôp, stôpum for 'stôdum. The forms in the other Teutonic languages follow the analogy of the Gothic, as Old Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, Old Frisian, stôd, plur. stôd-un, stôd-on; Old Norse stôd, plur. stôdum; but Old High German preserves the infix -n- in the preterite stuont, plur. stuontumés.
- 8. The Gothic gaggan (to go) ought to have the preterite gaigagg, but it takes the weak form gaggida; the preterite iddja, iddjës, iddja, plur. iddjëdum, is commonly used, formed irregularly from the root i (to go). This verb in the other Teutonic dialects goes regularly like the other strong verbs with lost reduplication after Class II.
- 9. The Gothic verb briggan has not the strong preterite bragg, but the weak brahta; Old High German has both strong and weak forms, hence brang, brungumés, and bráhta, bráhtumés; the

- Old Saxon brengjan has only the weak preterite brákta. Anglo-Saxon follows the analogy of Old High German in forming both a strong and a weak preterite of the verb bringan, namely brang, brungon, and broht, brohton. We have also strong and weak forms side by side in the Old Norse erja (to plough, arare), perf. ar and arða; quíða (to fear), perf. queith and quídda; kanga (to hang), perf. hékk and hangða; blóta (to sacrifice), perf. blét and blótaða, part. blótinn and blótaðr.
- 10. The Gothic fahan (to catch), and hahan (to hang), which form their perfect regularly with reduplication after Class II, cannot preserve their short radical in the other Teutonic dialects, they therefore must take the infix -n- and make the present themes fanga-, hanga-, or they adopt the inorganic length of the vowel, as O. H. Germ., O. S. fáhan, háhan; or thirdly they are contracted into fán, hán, A. S. fón, hón, O. Fris. fá, káa. The Anglo-Saxon declines 1st fó, 2nd fést, fæst, fæst, 3rd fés, fæs, fæhð, plur. fő-ð; in the same manner hó, &c.; O. Fris. 3rd féth, plur. fáth, subjunctive fé. But the preterite is in all dialects always the regular perfect of the infinitive fangan, hangan, after Class II. In Old Frisian however the preterite participle occurs, as fangen, fenszen, fén, fán, finsen; húen, huendzen, hinsen.
- 11. The verb brida (trahere), Old Frisian for bregda, has in the 3rd sing. breith, brith, preterite participle bruden, brugden. A similar inclination to get rid of the media we find in the Anglo-Saxon bregdan (nectere), which thus passes from Class X to IX and forms bräd, brædon, broden.
- 12. As in the Anglo-Saxon bregdan, so we observe in other verbs an inclination to pass from one conjugational class to another. Thus the Anglo-Saxon pihan (proficere), sihan (colere), tihan (arguere), wrihan (operire), pass from Class V to VI by changing the i, which is succeeded by an h, into eo (wrongly following the analogy of Brechung of i into eo), the preterite a into ea, and thus adopting the forms peón, seón, &c., preterite sing. peáh, seáh, &c., plur. pugon, sugon, &c., for pigon, sigon, &c. The Old Norse verbs singja (to sing) and singja (to sling, jactare) have passed from Class X into VI, and have the forms saung, sungum, súnginn, &c.
- 13. There is in Old Norse a number of verbs ending in a vowel which have in some forms passed from the strong to the weak declension. They make the preterite weak, the preterite participle commonly strong; e.g. gnúa (fricare), present gný, plur. gnúum, preterite gnúða, preterite part. gnúinn; ná (concepi), present næ, plur. náum, preterite náða, part. náinn; knúa

(cogere), present kný, plur. knúum, preterite knúða, part. knúinn; ské (fieri), ské, skéum, skéða, skéinn; strá (spargere), strái, stráum, stráða, strainn; trúa (fidem habere), trúi, trúum, trúða, trúinn and trúðr, &c. The verb sía (to see) has lost the strong participle, and has the following forms: present sé, preterite sá, plur. sáum, part. séðr; valda (to command) has in the preterite olli, ollum (from valdi, valdum) instead of vélt, véldum.

14. There are in Old High German and Old Norse remains of a preterite formed with -s-, like the Latin perfect, and sing. and plur. (in -is-ti, -is-tis). Such are in O. H. Germ. scri-r-u-més, root scri, to shriek; pi-r-u-mes, 2nd pi-r-u-t, root pi for pu, prim. bhu, to be; spi-r-u-més, root spiv, to spit; gri-r-u-més, root gri, gannire. They belong to Class V, and form their perfect as follows : e g. sing screi, scriri, screi ; plur. scrirumés ; part. scriranér. In these examples r stands for s, and u is the connective vowel of the plural. Some consider this r to have arisen from an original w, a view which they support by a form scri-w-u-mes, which occurs by the side of scri-r-u-mes. But the former opinion is strengthened by a number of similar formations which occur in Old Norse. Thus of the root gra, prim. ghra (virere) the infinitive is grôa, present groe, plur. grôum, preterite grêri, part. grôinn; gre-r-i=†gre-s-i=†gre-s-a; in the same manner nua (fricare), preterite néri; rôa, to row, réri; snúa, torquere, snéri; sốa, to sow, sêri.

15. The Old High German preterites sterog, pleruz, have nothing to do with the perfect formation in -s-, but find their explanation in an ancient reduplication<sup>2</sup>.

#### MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

The Middle and New Teutonic languages continue their progress on the road their predecessors had taken. In the conjugation the system of Ablaut gained absolute sway, and the ancient reduplication was no longer felt, though it had left indelible traces in the modifications of the radical which it had caused. The Ablaut itself did not remain stationary, but developed itself in the different dialects more or less in accordance with the phonetic laws of each. Thus the transition from Old High German to Middle High German, and again to New High German, is extremely regular and simple, and the different conjugational

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See the Formation of the Perfect in the Cognate Languages.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See the Formation of the Perfect in the Teutonic Languages.

The resent lay, we us far as the the same of the state of the st terror to the the entry with a times under the influence of might the low to the discussion of the street streets contains a great comments to the way to the exclusion and often in two conone has a more or uniquener different systems adopted: The property of the parties were steel perfectly at a loss in notice to the second of the control of the different time of the second of the pre-The series is reserved to the street of the singular. was the same as the manner of the Middle The manufacture of the surface of vowels may and sent to the most about a among periods, the characteristic me un e al ce uno como consesso de la materia, its meanmin in the management the structure of the Teutonic lanmany and many and according to many and - man cande a n little and ter read but wer a table and the second of the second of the second Modern The state of the state of the value of the appears must be a first of the court the Engrapement These two The control of the co omin not include which aready had left a good

The modern and the perfect tense in the perfect tense in the perfect tense in the perfect plural maintenance. The modern are the perfect in this law handed the perfect in the perfect parameter in the present of the present and the present and the present are the perfect in the plural of which was the maintenance of the present which was the perfect and the plural of which was the perfect and the plural of which was the perfect and the present which was the same Ablant; but the special Ablant o, O. H. Germ.

f five centuries ago, said, like his High German cousin, stele, tal, stulen, part. stolen; the Dutchman of to-day has stele, stal, tolen, part. stolen, importing the vowel o from the preterite pariciple into the plural of the perfect tense. In this manner all he Teutonic languages of modern times have abolished the pecial Ablaut of the preterite plural, the only exception occurng in Swedish, where, as we shall see, the distinction is still kept up in some conjugational classes. Before we proceed to survey these classes we examine as shortly as possible the different modifications of the Ablaut which took place in the Middle

and New Teutonic languages.

The Middle High German is in some respects hardly distinct from its Old High German parent; the vocalic systems of both are almost identical. It needs little demonstration to show that the Ablaut of the conjugational classes is essentially the same in both dialects; a glance at the succeeding tables will suffice to prove this. We therefore may confine ourselves to examine the few points in which they really differ. The reduplicational Ablaut (i.e. the Ablaut formed by the amalgamation of the reduplicational vowel and the radical) was in Old High German ia for verbs having a high-sounding radical in the present, io for those which had the dark radical  $\hat{o}$  or ou. The latter (io) however was often rendered by ia also, and both were in Old High German already occasionally weakened to ie. weakened form the Ablaut always occurs in Middle High German, so that there is no longer any difference in the preterite of our first four classes, its radical being always ie. changes do not occur in Middle High German, unless we mention the weakening of the Old High German u of the preterite participle, Classes IX and X, into o in Middle High German, a form which occurred in Old High German already side by side with the original u. But in Modern German the vocalic system experienced a few modifications which make themselves felt of course in the Ablaut too. First of all we have to mention the inorganic production, or lengthening of the radical vowel, which was not dictated by any discernible causes. In all the different classes the radical has become long, unless it was protected in its original character by its position. Thus we have for the Middle High German gibe, gab, the New High German gebe, gab; the nice distinction between the sing. gab and the plur. gaben disappears, of course, and with it that richness and variety of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> To make these observations more useful, the student should always compare the tables of the conjugational classes of the ancient dialects which precede, and of the modern dialects which follow below.

modulation of the voice so peculiar to our ancient dialects. A further change for the worse we find in the weakening of the i to e wherever it may occur in the 1st singular of the present tense or in the preterite participle; hence we always meet for the M. H. Germ. gibe, hilfe, the N. H. Germ. gebe, helfe. The reduplicational preterite is in New High German as in Middle High German always ie for the O. H. Germ. ia, io. The M. H. Germ. ou (like O. H. Germ. ou = Goth.  $\acute{a}u$ , second gradation of u) is rendered by the N. H. Germ. au; hence Goth. hlaupan, O. H. Germ. hloufan, M. H. Germ. loufen, N. H. Germ. laufen. M. H. Germ. i (like O. H. Germ. i=Goth. ei, first gradation of i) we find in New High German as ei, e.g. Goth. greipa, O. H. Germ. krîfu, M. H. Germ. grîfe, N. H. Germ. greife; and, vice versa, the M. H. Germ. ei (like O. H. Germ. ei = Goth. ái, second gradation of i) is represented in New High German by i (spelt ie, which is not to be confounded with the ie of the reduplication verbs); hence Middle High German present schide, preterite scheit, is in New High German scheide, schid (schied). The in of the present tense of our Class VI, which in Gothic, Old High German, and Middle High German is used as the first gradation of u, we find in New High German again in the weakened form ie, while the ou of the preterite is rendered in New High German by  $\delta$  or o instead of the corresponding diphthong au. Corresponding to the Middle High German preterite in uo of Class VII, New High German has  $\vec{u}$ . All other vowels are, in sound at least, in both languages the same, though they may differ in quantity.

Modern Dutch has, like Modern German, lengthened all originally short vowels, except in certain positions. The reduplicational preterite is in Middle Dutch and New Dutch ie throughout. Here we may take occasion to notice that Middle Dutch and Middle High German, and New Dutch and New High German, following their example, are, in certain important points of grammar more primitive than several of the Old Teutonic languages of far greater antiquity. The Goth. ái (O. H. Germ. and M. H. Germ. ei), as the second gradation of i in the present of Class III, is in Middle Dutch and New Dutch rendered, as in Old Saxon, by é; the Goth. áu (O H. Germ. and M. H. Germ. ou, N. H. Germ. au), second gradation of u, is given in Middle Dutch and New Dutch, as in Old Saxon, by  $\delta$ ; in the same manner the Dutch i of the present, Class V, answers to the O. H. Germ. and M. H. Germ. i, N. H. Germ. ei, Goth. ei, while in the preterite of the same class we have again, as above,  $\dot{\epsilon}$ = Goth. ái. In Class VI we have for the Goth. iu, first gradation of u in Middle Dutch as in N. H. Germ. ie, but in New Dutch

wi, a diphthong which in sound corresponds to the German eu, the frequent representative of an ancient iu, and even preserved in some verbal forms, as kreucht, fleucht, for the ancient fliuht, &c. The preterite of the same class has for the Goth. du (O. H. Germ. and M. H. Germ. ou) the d which we find in Old Saxon already. The Gothic d of the preterite, Class VII, which in Old High German and Middle High German has the diphthong uo, takes in Dutch the diphthong oe, which in sound is identical with the New High German d of the preterite of the same class. All other vowels need no further explanatory remarks.

As to the development of the vocalic system from Anglo-Saxon to Modern English we have already stated that its deviations are so multifarious, as to make it sometimes difficult to recognize any system whatever. But we may at any rate notice a few leading points which will help us more easily to survey the following table of the conjugational classes and the list of words belonging to each class, to which we must refer the student for further details. The reduplicational preterite, which in Anglo-Saxon had the radical eo, or its more condensed form  $\ell$ , we find in the writers since Layamon rendered in two ways, either as a diphthong, eo, or its occasional substitute ea, or as a simple vowel, e, or its cognate in sound,  $\alpha$ . Sometimes we meet with o in the preterite, which may be explained as the substitute of a, the latter again having taken the place of the original e. In the Ablaut verbs there was not so much room for an arbitrary choice of vowels, because its peculiar character was too deeply impressed on each vowel to render it liable to so great changesas its confreres in the reduplicational class. Still the deviations from the original form are many, a few of which may be mentioned.

The most stable of all vowels is i, which, through all periods, is either preserved in its original state or rendered by the weakened form e. The vowel a, the most stable, energetic, and persistent of vowels in other languages, such as German, is exposed to considerable modifications; it may be darkened into o, or weakened to e. The vowels e and e, perhaps identical in sound, seem to have been interchangeable in most periods of Early English. The ancient u, chiefly in the preterite participle, is regularly rendered by o, as in other Teutonic languages. The Anglo-Saxon e we find either as e or e0; e0 commonly as e0, oo, or e0; the Anglo-Saxon e0 cocurs in Late Saxon, but in Early English it is already supplanted by e0 or its neighbours e0 and e0. On the whole we find the Anglo-Saxon system of the Ablaut most con-

sistently applied in the Ormulum, where in general licence and arbitrary changes are repudiated, and a strict grammatical system is strictly carried out. There we find not only the ancient distinction between the singular and preterite plural kept up by different vowels, but even the original quantity often preserved; as in Class VIII, Anglo-Saxon present i, e, pret. sing. ā, plur. æ, pret. part. i, e; Ormulum, pres. i, e, pret. sing. a, plur. æ, pret. part. i, e. Layamon, on the other hand, allows himself a vast range of vowels to make up his system of Ablaut. But both agree in keeping up the ancient distinction between the radical of the singular and that of the plural of the preterite. Even in Old English and Middle English it is occasionally preserved, though its gradual disappearance in the latter dialects cannot be overlooked.

The Scandinavian languages of the present day, though not the direct descendants of Old Norse, have nevertheless much in common with the ancient dialect. As peculiar to the Swedish alone among all the modern languages of the Teutonic tribe, we must mention the nice distinction it makes between the Ablaut of the preterite singular and the preterite plural of verbs belonging to the Ablaut class; e.g. Class VIII, O. N. i...a...á...e (Goth. i...a...é...i), Swed. i...á...i; Class X, O. N. i...a...u...u (Goth i...a...u...u), Swed.  $\ddot{a}...a...u...u$ . Danish makes the plural and singular always alike. As to the vowels of the Ablaut a few observations may suffice. Old Norse already renders the reduplicated perfect by the most condensed form of the vowels of the root and the reduplication, applying, instead of the diphthong, the long vowel  $\hat{e}$ , with the exception of Class IV, where the Gothic  $\acute{a}u$  gives rise to the diphthong io, though even this is often replaced by  $\ell$ . Swedish and Danish follow the analogy of their Old Norse relative, so that in Class I they make the preterite a = 0. N.  $\hat{e}$ ; in Class II, Swed.  $\ddot{o}$ , Dan. a (o) = O. N.  $\acute{e}$ ; in Class III both  $\acute{e}$  = O. N.  $\acute{e}$ ; in Class IV, Swed.  $\ddot{o}$ , o, Dan. oe, u = 0. N. io (e). It is peculiar to the Danish language that in the reduplicational classes the vowel of the preterite becomes the radical of the present too, or vice versa, that the vowel of the present is preserved in the other tenses as well, so that in this case we can hardly speak of any Ablaut at all. Swedish follows more closely the analogy of Old Norse. The radical of the present, Class I, O. N.  $\vec{a} = \text{Goth. } \vec{e}$ , is rendered in Swedish by a; in the same manner O. N. a = Goth. a in Class The O. N. ei, in the present of Class III, is identical with the ei in High German, and corresponds to the Goth. ái; it is in Danish condensed into  $\hat{e}$ . The O. N. au = Goth.  $\hat{a}u$  of Class IV.

Swedish and Danish render by oe or u. In the Ablaut classes the analogy between Old Norse and Swedish is still greater, the only disadvantage of the latter being the total absence of diphthongs in the Modern Scandinavian languages. In Class V we find in Swedish and Danish, as in Old Norse, i in the present for the O. H. Germ. i and the Goth. ei. The Gothic preterite ái is in Old Norse ei, which in Swedish and Danish is again condensed into  $\acute{e}$ . The Gothic and Old Norse iu of the present in Class VI remains the same in Swedish; but occasionally it is rendered as in Danish by 9, the representative (Umlaut?) of a more ancient #. In Class VII Old Norse and Swedish are identical. This identity might be observed in the last three classes also, if Swedish had preserved the ancient shortness of the vowels; but like its modern sisters it has in most cases given way to inorganic production. Still, if not by different quantities, it does keep up the distinction of singular and plural preterite by difference of sound, putting for the Old Norse a and  $\hat{a}$ (Gothic a and  $\hat{e}$ )  $\hat{d}$  and  $\hat{a}$  respectively.

The distinction in Class X is perfect. The details may be further examined in the vocalic system of the classes and the examples which we give in the following.

#### CLASS I.

	Pres.		Pre		Part.		
O. H. Germ.	â.		ia				â
M. H. Germ.	â.		ie				â
N. H. Germ.	a.		ie				â
Old Saxon	â.		ie,	e .			â
Middle Dutch	â.		ie				â
New Dutch	â.		ie				â
Old Norse	a.		ð				â
Swedish	ð.		æ				ð
Danish	æ		æ				(æ)
Anglo-Saxon	æ		eo,	ð			æ
Layamon	æ, e		æ, e	, ea			e, a
Ormulum	æ		e	•			æ, e
Old English	€.		6				e, a
Middle English	е.		e				e
New English	e .		e				e

#### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German<sup>1</sup>. sldfe, slief, sldfen, to sleep; bráten, to roast; ráten, to advise; lázen, to let; blásen, to blow; háhe, hie, to hang; váhe, vie, to catch.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For examples in the Old Teutonic languages, see above, p. 411 sqq.

New High German. schlafe, schlief, schlafen ; raten, lagen, blasen.

Middle Dutch. slape, sliep, slapen; laten, to let; raden, blasen.

New Dutch. slap, sliep, slåpen; laten, råden, bråden, blåzen. Swedish. gråter, græt, gråten, to weep; låter, læt, låten.

Danish. grader, grad, grad, to weep; later, lat, laten.

Danish. grader, grad, grad, to weep; later follows Class VII.

Layamon. Pres. slæpe, pret. slæp (sleap), sleep; pres. lete (lete), pret. lette (lætte, leatte), part. ilete; drede, I dread, part. adredde, adrád.

Ormulum. slape, slepte (weak); late (lete), let, letenn (latenn); drade, pret. dredde.

Old English. slepe, pret. slep; lete (late), pret. let (lete, lette),

part. ilete (ilate, laten); drede, pret. dred.

Middle English. slepe, pret. slep (sleep, slepte), part. slept (w.ak); lete (lat), pret. leot (lete, lette), part. letun (lete); dredt (dreede), pret. dred (dredde, dradde), part. adred, adrad.

New English. sleep (weak); let; dread (weak).

#### CLASS II.

	Pres.			Pret.			Part.
O. H. Germ.	<b>a</b> .			ie.			a
M. H. Germ.	α.			ie .			. <b>a</b>
N. H. Germ.	a .			ie .			a
Old Saxon	a.			ie, ê			a
Middle Dutch	a .			ie, e,	i		a
New Dutch	α.			ie .			а
Old Norse	a.			ê.			a
Swedish	å.			δ.			đ
Danish	a, o			a, o			a, o
Anglo-Saxon	a, e	ι.		eo, ê			a, ea
Layamon	a,o						a, o
Ormulum	a.						a
Old English	a.			e, 0			a, o
Middle English	a, e,	0		ė.			•
New English	a. o			0. 11			•

#### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. valle, viel, vallen, to fall; halten, to hold; schalten, to rule; spalten, to cleave; walten, to command; salzen, to salt; bannen, to banish, interdicere.

New High German. falle, fiel, fallen; halten; hange, hieng, hangen, to hang; fange, fieng, fangen, to catch; gange (obsolete), gieng, gangen, to go.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> I give the perfect participle without the augment ge-, though in Modern German it is essential in the formation of the past participle, while its use was optional in Old High German.

iddle Dutch. valle, vël, vallen; houde (=halte¹) hëlt (hilt), en, to hold; soude, selt (silt), souden; banne, bën, bannen; he, ghinc, ganghen, to go; vanghe, vinc, vanghen, to catch p. gaen, faen); heffe, hief, hëven, to lift, from Class VII.

ew Dutch. val, viel, vallen; houd¹, hield, houden; hang, hangen; vang (usually va), ving, vangen; ga (gange, obsoging, gangen; hef, hief, héven.

wedish. faller, föll, fallen, to fall; håller, höll, hållen, to

; får, fick, plur. finge, fången, infin. få, to catch; går, gick, , gangen, infin. gå, to go.

anish. falder, faldt, falden, to fall; holder, holdt, holten, to

; faaer, fik, fangen, to catch; gaaer, gik, gangen, to go.

yamon. halde (hælde, holde), pret. heold (held, hæld, huld),
ihalden, iholden; falde, feold, to fall; walde (wælde,
?), pret. walde (welde), part. awald; fo, pret. ifeng, part.
en (ifon); hange, heong (heng), hongen (hon); ga, go; part.

mulum. falle, fell, fallenn; halde, held, haldenn; fange

feng; hange, heng, hangenn; gange (ga), zede², gan.

d English. falle, fel, fallen; halde, held (huld), yholde; ; fong (feng) (fanged weak), part. fanged; hange (honge), hong (honge) (hanged weak); go (ga), zede, zeode, zode, part. on, gone, gane.

iddle English. fonge, feng, fongen; honge (hange), henge g) (hangide, hongede, weak), heng (hanged, hongid, weak); (gon, go, goo), zede (wente), goon (gon, go, ygo).

w English. fall, fell, fallen; hold, held, held; hang, hung, go (went), gone.

#### CLASS III.

	Pı	es.			Pret.		Part.			
O. H. Germ.	ei				ia					ei
M. H. Germ.	ei				ie					ci
N. H. Germ.	ei				ie					ર્લ
Old Saxon	â				ê, ie					8
Middle Dutch	ê				ie					a
New Dutch	ð				ie					ð
Old Norse	ei				ê.					ei
Swedish	ð				â.					â
Danish	â				â.					â
Anglo-Saxon	â				eo, ê					â
Layamon	a,	æ,	0		e, eo	, æ				<b>a</b> , o
Ormulum	a,	æ			a, æ,	е,	eo			a
Old English	a,	e,	0		e.				•	a, o
Middle English	0				е.					0
New English	0				e.				•	0

vocalized in ou; see the phonetic laws of New Dutch.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> A. S. eóde.

### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. scheide, scheiden, to separate; eischen, to demand; heizen, to command, to be called; sweifen, vibrate.

New High German. heiße, hieß, heißen; scheide follows the analogy of Class VIII.

Middle Dutch. héte, hiet, héten, to order, to be called; scéle, sciet, scéden, to separate; vrésche, vriesch, vréschen, to demand.

New Dutch. hét, hiet, héten; eisch, ésch, eischen.

Layamon. hate (hate, hote), pret. hahte (hehte), part. biketen (ihote), blawe (blawe, blowe, &c.), pret. bleou (bleu), part. iblowen; cnawe (cnowe), cneow (cnew), cnawen (cnowe); sawe (sowe), pret. seow; mawe (mowe), meow (mew).

Ormulum. hate, het, hatenn; blawe, part. blawen; cnave,

cnew (cneow); sawe, part. sawenn.

Old English. hote, het, part. hatte (yhote); blowe (blawe), blewe; knowe (knawe), knew, knowen (knawen); sowe, sewe (seu).

Middle English. hote, pret. behote, part. bihoten; blowe, blew, blowun (blowen); knowe, knew (knew3, kne3, knowide), knowen (know); sowe (sewe), pret. sewe (sowide weak), sowen (sowid).

New English. blow, blow, blown; know, know, known; crow, crew, crown (obs. for crowed); throw, threw, thrown.

#### CLASS IV.

	Pres.			Pret.		Part.
O. H. Germ.	ou, δ,	uo		io .		ou, ô, <b>u</b> o
M. H. Germ.	ou, ô,	uo		ie .		ou, 8, uc
N. H. Germ.	au, ô			ie .		au, ô
Old Saxon	ô, uo			io, ie		ó, uo
Middle Dutch	δ.			• .		ð <sup>´</sup>
New Dutch	ô, oe			ie .		ô. 0e
Old Norse	au, ô					au, ô
Swedish	oe, u			o, ö		oe, u
Danish	0e, u			•		•
Anglo-Saxon	ea, ô,					· A A
_ ~	æ, e			eo, e		eo, ea, e
Ormulum	æ, o			? .		æ, o
Old English	e, o			e, o		-
Middle English				e, o		e, o
New English	δ.					8

## Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. loufe, lief, loufen, to run; houwe, hiu, plur. hiuwen, part. houwen, to hew, cut; stóze, stiez, stózen, to

strike; schröte, schriet, schröten, to cut; ruofe, rief, ruofen,

w High German. haue, hieb, hauen, cut, strike; laufe, lief, ; stoße, stieß, stoßen; schröle, schriet, schröten; rufe, rief, to call.

idle Dutch. lope, liep, lopen, to run; howe, hieu, plur. houstote, to strike, butt, stiet, stoten; roepe, riep, roepen.

w Dutch. lóp, liep, lópen; houw, hieuw, houwen; roep, riep,, to call.

ramon. læpe (lepe), pret. leop (lep, leup, leoup, ileope), plur. leopen; wepe (weope), pret. weop (wep); hewe (hæuwe), pret. heowe), part. heawen (heouwen, hewen); rowe (rouwe), part.; growe, pret. greu (greowen, growe).

nulum. læpe, pret. lupe; hæwe, part. hæwenn; bæte, part.

English. lepe, pret. lepe (lept, weak); wepe, pret. wep and wepte, weped, weak); hewe, pret. hew (hewe), part.; growe (grewe). pret. grew (greu).

idle English. lepe, pret. lepe (leep and lepte, leppide, weak), lopen (leppid, lept weak); hewe, heew (hew and hewide, part. hewun (hewen and hewid weak); growe, pret. grew rowide weak), part. growun (growen).

w English. hew, part. hewn; grow, grew, grown; weep, wept, weak); leap, leapt, leapt (weak); beat, part. beaten. Exly some verbs of Classes III and IV are identical in form; different origin will be seen on reference to Classes III and Anglo-Saxon.

### CLASS V.

	Pres	١.	Pr	et.	Sin	g.	Pl	ur.		Part.
O. H. Germ.	í			ei			i			i
M. H. Germ.	î			ei			í			i
N. H. Germ.	ei			î,	i					î, i
Old Saxon	î			ê			i			í
Middle Dutch	í			ê			ë			ĕ
New Dutch	î			ê						ê
Old Norse	í			તાં			i			i
Swedish	î			ê					Ċ	í
Danish	£			ð						î
Anglo-Saxon	ŧ			â			i			i
Lavamon	i			a.	æ		i			i
Ormulum	i						i			i
Old English	i			a,	0		i,	0		i
Middle Englis	h i				00		- 7			i
New English	i			o,						o, i

## The control of the control of the desire

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Minute Intro. The second of the second of the single of the writer of the second of th

New Intia. The control of control of the control of

Secretion of consess order, to proceed a series of a to seize or the constant of conservations of the seize of the constant of the conservation of

Formula: The second of the sec

Communication of the plant of the part, of the first goods, acres, the same manner. First, write, bits, contractions are the contractions of the c

Middle E extent, shyon, show a control to the part shinen; degree, deed, degree, degree, show, show, a shequen; show, shot, shere, a, shequen; there, there, there, theren, theiren; byte, best, biten, to-lite; smyle, mount, emple, smylen; wryte, wroote, writen, writen; rede, rood, eden, exten, ever roos, risen, risen.

**New English.** shine, shone, part. shone; drive, drove, driven: thus also, shrive, thrive; bite, bit, bitten; smite, smote, smitten; abide, abode, abode; ride, rode, ridden; rise, rose, risen; strike, atruck, struck (stricken).

### CLASS VI.

	Pres.			P	ret. S	ing	;	Plu	r.		1	Part.
O. H. Germ.	iu.				ou			u				0
M. H. Germ.	iu.				014			u				0
N. H. Germ.	ie .				ð, o							8, 0
Old Saxon	fu, ic	, (	1.		8.			14				o
Middle Dutch	ie, i				8.			0				0
New Dutch	ui.				8.							ð
Old Norse	iu, i	). <b>1</b>	1.		au			u				0
Swedish	iu, Ø				oe .							ıl
Danish	1.				œ.							4
Anglo-Saxon	eo .				ea			u				0
Layamon	eo, e				æ, a			u.	0			0
Ormulum	e0. e				æ.			u				0
Old English	e.				e .							0
Middle English												0
New English	6,0				-							o, e

## Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. schiube, schoup, schuben, schoben, to push; kliube, kloup, kluben, to adhere, stick; stiuben, to move; sliufen, to glide; triufen, to drop; briuwen, to brew; riuwen, to rue, repent: giuze, góz, guzzen, gozzen, in the same manner, biuten, to offer; siuden, to boil; kiuse, kós, kurn, korn, to choose; verliuse, verlós, verlurn, verlorn; vriuse, vrós, vrurn, vrorn, to freeze; súge, souc, sugen, sogen, to suck; ziuhe, zóch, zugen, zogen, to pull.

New High German. triefe, troff, troffen, to drop; siede, sott, sotten, to boil; also, riechen, to smell; kriechen, to creep; schließen, to lock; schießen, to shoot; schieße, schöß, schößen, to push; schnauße, schnöß, schnößen, anhelare; erkiese, erkör, erkören, to choose: thus also verliere, to loose; friere, to freeze; biegen, to bend; luegen, to lie, mentiri; saugen, sog, sogen, to suck; fließe, floh, flohen, to flee; fliege, flog, flogen, to fly; ziehen, zog, zogen, to pull.

Middle Dutch. drupe, drope, dropen, dropen, to drop; crupen, to creep; slupen, to glide; scuven; giete, gót, goten, goten: thus also, verdrieten, to offend; scieten, to shoot; verliese, verlos, verloren, verloren: thus also, kiesen, to choose; vriesen, to freeze; luke, loc, loken, loken, to lock; bughen, to bend; vlieghen, to fly; vlien, to flee.

New Dutch. druip, drop, dropen, to drop; thus also, kruipen, to creep; sluipen, to glide; kluifen, to cleave; schuifen, to push; giet, gôt, gôten, to pour out: thus also, verdrieten, to offend; vluiten, to flow; sluiten, to lock; bied, bod, boden; kies, kos and kôr, kôzen and kôren, to choose; vries, vrôs and vrôr, vrôzen and vrôren, to freeze.

Swedish. dryner, droep, drupe, drupen, to drop: also krypa, to creep; brita, to break; giuta, to pour out; sluta, to lock; biuda, to bid; liuga, mentiri; snyta, to cut.

Danish. kryber, kroeb, kroebe, kroeben, to creep: also, bifde, to bid; skyde, to shoot; snyde, to cut; gyse, to pour out; kyser, koes, kysen, to choose; flyger (flyver), floei, floejen, to fly; lyger (lyven), loei, loejen, to lie.

Layamon. crepe, pret. crap, plur. crupon, part. -cropen; cleonic, clæf, cluuen, clouen; geote, gæt, geoten, -goten, to pour out; sceote, sceat (scæt), scuten, -scoten; beode (bede), bad (bæd, bed), budon (biden), -boden, -beden; cheose, chæs, curon (ichose), icoren (ichosen); leose, læs (lees, losede weak); iloren (ilosed weak); fleo, flæh (fleh), fluzen (fluwen), fluzen (floze), to fly; fleo, flak (flek, fleik, flei), flluzen, fluwen, iflozen (iflowe), to flee.

Ormulum. clefe, clæf, clufenn, clofenn; gete, gæt, gutenn, gotenn; bidde (bede), badd (bæd), budenn, beodenn; chees, chæs, curenn? chosen; forlese, forlæse, forlurenn, forrlorenn; lezhe, læh, luzhenn, lozhenn; flezhe, flæh, fluzhenn, flozhenn, to fly; fle(o), flæh,

fluzhen, flozhen.

Old English. clere, clef, clouen, ycloue; brewe, brew, browen; schete, schet, plur. schot, part. schotten; 3hete, pret. plur. 3hotten, part. 3hoten, zet; bede, bed, boden, boden; chese, ches, plur. chosen, part. ycorn, chosen; lie (lizhe), lizhed; fle, pret. flegh, plur. flowen, part. yflowe, to fly; fle, flew (fley, fled), plur. flowen (fled), part. fled.

Middle English. crepe, crope, plur. cropen, part. cropen; bede, bad (beede), plur. beden, part. boden (beden); zeete, gotte (zetide), part. 30tun; schete, schotte (schete), plur. schete, part. schott; chese, chees (cheside), plur. chosen (chesen), part. chosen; lize (lie); leizh (liede), plur. lieden, part. leized (lowen, lyed); flee (fleze, fliege), flew (fleiz), plur. flewen (to fly); flee, fleiz (fledde), plur. flowen (fledden), part. fled, to flee.

New English. creep, crept (weak); cleave, clove (clave, cleft weak), part. cloven (cleft weak); seethe, sod (seethed weak), sodden (seethed weak); shoot, shot, shotten, shot; choose, chose, chosen; freeze, froze, frozen; fly, flew, flown; flee, fled, fled.

#### CLASS VII.

	P	res.			Pret.	Sing		Plur			Part.
O. H. Germ.	a				uo.			uo			a
M. H. Germ.	а				uo .			160			a
N. H. Germ.	â				d.						â
Old Saxon	$\boldsymbol{a}$				6 (uc	) .		8 (u	)		a,
Middle Dutch	a				œ .	٠.		œ.			a
New Dutch	а				oe .						a
Old Norse	а				6.			8.			a, e
Swedish	â				8.			δ.			â
Danish	â				oe, ô			oe, ô			â
Anglo-Saxon	$\boldsymbol{a}$				ô.			ô.			a
Layamon	0,	a,	e		o, ea	, eo		ο.		•	a, o
Ormulum	a				ο.			ο.			a
Old English	a,	е,	0		o, ou	, a, e	٤.	0, 01	ι.		a, o
Middle English	a,	o,	e		0, 00			0, 00	٠.		a, o
New English	a,	60	١.	•	0, 00	•	•			•	a, o

### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. mal, muol, maln, to grind, molere; var, vuor, varn, to go, drive, convey; grabe, gruop, graben, to dig: also, schaben, to scrape; schaffen, to work, create; heben, to lift; waschen, to wash; tragen, to bear, carry; bache, to bake; slahe, sluoc, sluogen, slagen, to strike, slay.

New High German. fåre, får, fåren; gråbe, gråb, gråben; schaffe, schäf, schaffen; wasche, wusch, waschen; tragen, schlagen, to strike, slay; backen, to bake; wachsen, to grow.

Middle Dutch. male, moel, malen; vare, voer, varen; grave, groef, graven: also, draghen, to bear; waden, transire; scapen, to make, create; slaghe, sloech, plur. sloeghen, part. sleghen, to strike, slay.

New Dutch. var, voer, varen; graf, groef, graven, to dig; sla, sloeg, slagen, to strike, slay: also, sta, stond, gestan, to stand.

Swedish. får, för, fåren; står, stöd, ståden, infin. stå, to stand; skåper, sköp, skåpen: also græfva, to dig; hæfva, to lift up; dråga, to move, drag, bear; væfva, to weave; slår, slög, slågen, to strike, slay.

Danish. fårer, foer, fåren; staaer, stöd, standen: also gråve, to dig; låde, to let; dråge, to bear; slaaer, slög, slågen.

Layamon. fare, for, foren, ifaren; stonde, stod, istonden, to stand; swerie, swor, isworen, to swear; sceke, scoc, plur. scæken, part. asceken, to shake; take, toc, token, itaken; draze, droh, plur. drozen (drowen), idrazen (idrawen); sle (slæ), sloh (slæh), slozen (slowen), islagen (islawen); waxe, weox (wax, wex), plur. weoxen (wuxen), part. iwaxen (iwox, iwoxen).

Ormalum. fare, for, plur. foreun, part. fareun: also, standes, to stand: foreuken, waken, taken; druzke, drok, plur. drozken, part. drozken; sla, slok, plur. slozkenn, part. slageun; waxe, vez, plur. wexenn. part. waxenn.

Old English. fare, fore, faren; stonde, stod, standen; swen, sworn; whake, whok, schaken; take, tok, taken; wake, wok; drawe, drowe drewe, drowh, drawen (drawken); sle (slo), slow (sloyh, slowh, slow; part. slawe, slain; lizhe, low (lowz), plus.

lough; ware were, wer war, part. waren (grear).

Middle English. fare, pret. fared (weak), part. faren (fore); stonde, stood 'stod, part. stonden; sweer, swoor, plur. swore (sweren), part. sworen; forsake, forsake, forsaken; schake, schook (schoke, schakide, weak), part. schakun; take, tok'e), plur. token, part. taken; wake, wook, plur. woken, part. waken: drawe, drow (drew), part. drawen; sle (sle, slea), pret. slo3 (slow, slew), part. slain (slawen, slawe); were (ware), wore (war, wer), part. woren (waren, weren).

New English. stand, stood; swear, swore (sware), sworn; heave, hove, hoven (also weak); forsake, forsook, forsaken; wake, woke; draw, drew, drawn; slay, slew, slain; wax, part. waxen (else weak).

### CLASS VIII.

	Pres.		P	ret.	Si	ng.		P	ur.			Part.
O. H. Germ.	i .			a				á				ë
M. H. Germ.	í.			а				â				ë
N. H. Germ.	á.			á								ē
Old Saxon	i, ē			а				á				ë
Middle Dutch	ë.			а				a				ë
New Dutch	é.			á								ê
Old Norse	i, e			а				â				e
Swedish	<b>í</b> .			â				đ				£
Danish	í, æ			â								í, æ
Anglo-Saxon	í, e			ä				æ				i, e
Lavamon	1. e			æ,	a			æ	. e			e, i
Ormulum	í, e			a.				æ				e, i
Old English	e, i			a,	e			α.	0,	e		0, e
Middle English	e. i			a				a	, o,	e		o, e
New English	e, i			a,				٠				o, <b>i</b>

### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. gibe, gap, gaben, geben, to give; biten, to ask, beg; triten, to tread; lisen, to read; ligen, to lie, jacere; pfligen, to be accustomed; wigen, to move; izze, az, azzen, ezzen, to cat; vergizzen, to forget; mizzen, to measure; sihe, sach, sahen, sehen, to see; geschihe, geschach, geschahen, geschehen; wise, was, waren, wesen, to be.

New English. shine, shone, part. shone; drive, drove, driven: thus also, shrive, thrive; bite, bit, bitten; smite, smote, smitten; sbide, abode, abode; ride, rode, ridden; rise, rose, risen; strike, struck (stricken).

### CLASS VI.

	Pres.			P	ret. S	ing	:	Plu	r.		1	Part.
O. H. Germ.	iu.				<b>016</b>			u				0
M. H. Germ.	iu .				086			u				0
N. H. Germ.	ie .				8, 0							6, 0
Old Saxon	fu, ic	), (	4.		8.			14				ó
Middle Dutch	ie. d				8.							0
New Dutch	ui.				8.							ð
Old Norse	iu, i	0. 1	4.		au							0
Swedish	iu. I				œ.			4				ıl
Danish	9.				06.							4
Anglo-Saxon	eo .				ea							
Layamon	e0, e				æ, a			u,				o
Ormulum	eo. e		·	i	-			u				
Old English	ε.			•	e .		-	0			•	o
Middle English				-			:			:		-
New English	6,0			:	•	:		÷				

## Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. schiube, schoup, schuben, schoben, to push; kliube, kloup, kluben, to adhere, stick; stiuben, to move; sliufen, to glide; triufen, to drop; briuwen, to brew; riuwen, to rue, repent: giuze, góz, guzzen, gozzen, in the same manner, biuten, to offer; siuden, to boil; kiuse, kós, kurn, korn, to choose; verliuse, verlós, verlurn, verlorn; vriuse, vrós, vrurn, vrorn, to freeze; suge, souc, sugen, sogen, to suck; ziuhe, zóch, zugen, zogen, to pull.

New High German. triefe, troff, troffen, to drop; siede, sott, sotten, to boil; also, riechen, to smell; kriechen, to creep; schließen, to lock; schießen, to shoot; schiebe, schöb, schöben, to push; schnaube, schnöb, schnöben, anhelare; erkiese, erkör, erkören, to choose: thus also rerliere, to loose; friere, to freeze; biegen, to bend; luegen, to lie, mentiri; saugen, sög, sögen, to suck; fliehe, flöh, flöhen, to flee; fliege, flög, flögen, to fly; ziehen, zög, zögen, to pull.

Middle Dutch. drop, and dropen, to drop; crupen, to creep; slupen, to cle and also, verdrieten, to all cot; verliese, verlos, verloren, verloren; thus also, loke, loke,

Ormulum. fare, for, plur. forenn, part. farenn: also, standen, to stand; forsaken, waken, taken; drazhe, droh, plur. drozhenn, part. drazhen; sla, sloh, plur. slozhenn, part. slagenn; waxe, wez, plur. wexenn, part. waxenn.

Old English. fare, fore, faren; stonde, stod, standen; swere, sworn; schake, schok, schaken; take, tok, taken; wake, woke; drawe, drowe (drewe, drouh), drawen (drauhen); sle (slo), slow (slogh, slouh, slou); part. slawe, slain; lizhe, low (lowz), plur. louzh; waxe (wexe), wex (wax), part. waxen (ywox).

Middle English. fare, pret. fared (weak), part. faren (fore); stonde, stood (stod), part. stonden; sweer, swoor, plur. sworen (sweren), part. sworen; forsake, forsoke, forsaken; schake, schook (schoke, schakide, weak), part. schakun; take, tok(e), plur. token, part. taken; wake, wook, plur. woken, part. waken: drawe, drow (drew), part. drawen; sle (sle, slea), pret. slo3 (slow, slew), part. slain (slawen, slawe); wexe (waxe), woxe (wax, wex), part. woxen (waxen, wexen).

New English. stand, stood; swear, swore (sware), sworn; heave, hove, hoven (also weak); forsake, forsook, forsaken; wake, woke; draw, drew, drawn; slay, slew, slain; wax, part. waxen (else weak).

### CLASS VIII.

	Pres.		P	ret. S	ing		P	ur			Part.
O. H. Germ.	i .			a .			â				ë
M. H. Germ.	i .			a .			â				ë
N. H. Germ.	â.			â.							ê
Old Saxon	i, ë			a .			â				ë
Middle Dutch	ë.			a .			a				ë
New Dutch	ê.			â.							ê
Old Norse	i. e			a .			â				e
Swedish	€ .			â.			đ				6
Danish	î,æ			$\hat{a}$ .							í, æ
Anglo-Saxon	i, e			••			æ				i, e
Layamon	i. c			æ, a			æ				e, i
Ormulum	1. e			-							e, i
Old English	e, i			a, e				0,	e		0, 6
Middle English								0,			0, C
New English	e, i			a, o							0, 6

## Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. gibe, gap, gaben, geben, to give; biten, to ask, beg; triten, to tread; lisen, to read; ligen, to lie, jacere; pfligen, to be accustomed; wigen, to move; izze, az, azzen, ezzen, to eat; vergizzen, to forget; mizzen, to measure; sihe, sach, sahen, sehen, to see; geschihe, geschach, geschahen, geschehen; wise, was, waren, wesen, to be.

### CLASS VIL

	Pres.	Pres. Sing.	≥ar.	1
0. H. Germ.	<b>6</b>	. 10	•	£
M. H. Germ.	<b>.</b>		•	E
N. H. Germ.	<b>ć.</b>	. 💰		1
Old Sexon	•	. <b>3</b> .m	5 mm	£
Middle Dutch	<b>6</b>	. 🕊	16	E
New Dutch	<b>6</b>			1
Old Norse	<b>a</b>	ě	÷	7 -
Swedish	<b>å</b>	. <b>i</b>	ī	4
Danish	<b>å</b>		e. 1	
Anglo-Sexon	<b>c</b>	. i	ė	1
Layamon		1 2 2	1	£1
Ormulum	<b>6</b>	. 4	3	£
Old English	6,6,5 .	. 4 M. L!	1. 24	2 3
Middle English		2.14	A 166	Lı
New English	e, es	2. 16		

## Ferba belonging to the Com.

Middle High German. mal, mail, mail. to grant. names; var, vuor, varn, to go, drive, enarey; grue. jring jrings to dig: also, schaben, to scrape; schafen, to write trace. veren, to lift; waschen, to wash; tragen, to bear, earry: value to lease; slahe, sluoc, sluogen, slagen, to strike, slay.

New High German. fare, fur, faren; grize, grize, grize, grize; schaffe, schaffen; wasche, wurch, warrier; tergen, reliagen, to strike, slay; backen, to bake; wachen, to grow.

Middle Dutch. male, moel, malen; vare. vare. varen; grave. grave, grave, graven: also, draghen, to bear; walen, transire; scapen, tr, make, create; slaghe, sloech, plur. sleeghen, part. sleeghen, tr, strike, slay.

Mew Dutch. vár, voer, váren; gráf, groef, grácen, to dig; slá, sloeg, slágen, to strike, slay: also, stá, stond, gestán, to stand.

Swedish. får, för, fåren; slår, slåd, slåden, infin. slå, to stand; skåper, sköp, skåpen: also græfva, to dig; kæfva, to lift up; dråga, to move, drag, bear; væfva, to weave; slår, slög, slågen, to strike, slay.

Danish. farer, foer, faren; staaer, stod, standen: also grace,

to dig; lade, to let; drage, to bear; slaaer, slog, slagen.

Layamon. fare, for from an interpretation is stonder, to stand; swerie, seeke, seeke, seeke, seeken, part. asceken, to staken; draze, droh, plur. drozen (drozen. (slowen), island (wax, wex), ir. weoxen (waxen), part.

### CLASS IX.

	Pre	B.	I	ret. S	ing	ζ.	Plu	ır.			Part.
O. H. Germ.	ië			a.			â				0
M. H. Germ.	<b>i</b> .			a .			â				0
N. H. Germ.	â.			& (o)	١.						ó
Old Saxon	i, ë			a . ´			â				u, o
Middle Dutch	e.			<b>a</b> .			a				0
New Dutch	â.			â.							δ
Old Norse	i. e			a .			â				M. 0
Swedish	æ.			â.			ð				ú
Danish	æ.			â.							aa
Anglo-Saxon	í.			ä, a			æ,	â			0
Layamon	e i			a, o			a				0, 16
Ormulum	6. i			a, o			æ.	0			0. 14
Old English	e, i			a, o			a,	0.	e		0, 8
Middle English				a, o			a.	o,	e		0 %
New English	éa,	eá		a o							0

## Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. stil, stal, stalen, stoln, to steal; nim, nam, namen, nomen, to take; kome (=quime), kam (kom, quam), kamen (komen), komen: also, stimen, cohibere; zimen, decere; biren, to bear; swiren, to swear; triffen, to hit; drischen, to thrash; sprichen, to speak; stichen, to prick, to sting; brichen, to break; erschricke, erschrac, erschraken, erschrocken; vihten, to fight; vlihten, to weave.

New High German. stéle, stál, stólen; néme, nám, nommen; komme, kám, kommen; gebære, gebár, gebőren; treffe, tráf, troffen: also, dreschen, sprechen, stechen, brechen, erschrecken.

Middle Dutch. stële, stal, stalen, stolen: also, nëmen, to take; bëren, to bear; scèren, to shear; brëken, to break; come, quam, quamen, comen, to come.

New Dutch. stél, stál, stôlen: also, némen, to take; bréken, spréken; plége, plág, part. plágen for plógen; kom, quám, kómen.

Swedish. stileler, stál, ståle, stúlen; bær, bár, båre, búren; skær, skáre, skůren, to shear; kom, komme, kommen.

Danish. stiæler, stiál, stiaalen; bær, bár, baaren; skiær, skár, skaaren.

Layamon. stele, stal, stalen, stole; nime, nam (nom, nam), nomen (namen, numen), nomen (numen); kume (come), com, comen, comen (cumen); berc, bær (bar), beren, boren (iborne); breke, brac (bræc, breac), brecon (braken) broken; speke (spæke), spac (spæc), spæken (speken), ispecen.

Ormulum. stele, stall, stælenn, stolenn; nime, namm, næmenn, numenn; cume, comm, comenn, cumenn; bere, barr, bærenn, borenn; breke, bracc, bræcen, brokenn; speke, spacc, spækenn.

Old English. stele, stel, plur. stal, part. stolen; nime, nam (nom), plur. nam (nomen), part. nomen (ynome); come, cam (com), plur. cam (comen), part. comen (ycome); bere, ber (bare), plur. bere (bare), part. ybore (born, yborne); schere, schare, plur. schere; part. schorn; breke, brac (brek), plur. braken (breke) part. broken; speke, spac (spec), plur. speke, part. spoken (speke).

Middle English. stele, stal (staal), plur. stolen, part. stolen (stoln); nyme, nam, nomen (nemen), nomen; cume (com), cam (com), plur. camen (comen), part. comen (cummen); schere, schar, scharen, schorun (schor); breke (breek), brak (bracke), plur. braken (broke); speke, spac (spake), plur. spaken (speken),

part. spoken.

New English. steal, stole, stolen; come, came, come; bear, bore (bare), born, borne; shear, shore, shorn; tear, tore, torn; speak, spoke (spake), spoken.

### CLASS X.

	Pres.			1	Pret	. 8	ing	ζ.		Pl	ur.	,			Part.
O. H. Germ.	i, ĕ				a					14					u
M. H. Germ.	<b>i</b> .				a					u					0
N. H. Germ.	e.				a										0
Old Saxon	i, ë				a					16					u, o
Middle Dutch	ė.				a					0					0
New Dutch	e.				0										0
Old Norse	i, e.	ia			a					u					u, o
Swedish	ä.	•			a					u					u
Danish	ä.				a					а					u
Anglo-Saxon	i, e	eo			a	ea	, ä			u				•	u, o
Layamon	i, e,	60			a,	æ,	0			u,	0			•	u, o
Ormulum	e, i				a					u					u, o
Old English	e, i	•	•		a,	0			•	a,	0,	ou			o, ou, u
Middle English	e, i	•			a,	ο,	00			a,	0,	00,	ou		u, o
New English	e, i,	u			a,	u,	0,	ou		•					o, u, ou

### Verbs belonging to this Class.

Middle High German. hilfe, half, hulfen, holfen, to help: also, gilten, to be worth; schilten, to scold; milken, to milk; swilgen, to riot, glutire; klimmen, to climb; brinnen, to burn; rinnen, to run, to flow, to leak; spinnen, to spin; sinnen, to cogitate; binden, to bind; vinden, to find; schinden, to flay; trinken, to drink; dringen, to urge; singen, to sing; springen, to leap; stirben, to die, moriri; wirfen, to throw; wirden, to become.

New High German. helfe, half, plur. halfen, part. holfen: also, gelten, melken, molk, molken; klimme, klomm, klommen; brenne, brannte, gebrannt (see the Anomalous Verbs); rinne, rann,

ronnen: also, spinnen; binden, band, bunden: also, schinden, finden, trinken, dringen, singen; springe, sprang, gesprungen; sterbe, starb, storben; werfe, warf, worfen; werde, ward (wurde), wurden, worden.

Middle Dutch. helpe, halp, holpen: also, delven, to delve, dig; smelte, smout (= smalt), smouten; climme, clam, clommen; beghinne, began, begonnen, begonnen: also, rinnen, spinnen, binden, ninden, drinken, sinken, wörpen, sterven; worde, wært, plur. worden, part. worden.

New Dutch. help, holp, holpen: also, melken, schelden, klismen, beginnen, rinnen, binden, vinden, drinken, springen, werpen, sterven, treffen, vechten. But helpen, werpen, sterven, commonly

make the preterite hielp, wierf, stierf.

Swedish. kiälper, kalp, kulpe, kulpen; swäller, svall, svalle, svallen, to die: also, nimma, to take; brinna, to burn; finna, to find; binda, to bind; siunga, to sing; känga, to hang; cärpa, w throw; värfva (Germ. werben); dricker, to drink.

Danish. hiälper, hialp, hiulpen: also, giälde, binde, finde,

sgnke, hänge, springe, träffe, drikke.

Layamon. helpe, halp, plur. heolpen; delue, pret. plur. dulfen, part. idoluen; swimme, swomm, plur. swummen; climbe, clomb, plur. clumben, part. iclumben; aginne, agon, gunnen, gunnen; irne (eorne), orn (ran), plur. urnen, to run; beorne, born, plur. burnen, to burn; binde, bond, bunden, ibunden; finde, fond, funden; ifunden; weorpe, warp, wurpen, iworpen; kerfe, carf (cærf), curuen, coruen; fehte, faht (feaht), fuhten, iuohten.

Ormulum. hellpe, hallp, hulpenn, hollpenn; dellfe, dallf? dulfenn? dollfenn? biginne, gann, gunnenn, bigunnenn; erne (eorne), rann, part. runnenn, to flow, leak; binde, band, bunden; finde, fundenn, fundenn; drinnke, dranke, drunkenn, drunnkenn;

werrpe, warrp, wurrpenn? worrpenn.

Old English. helpe, halp (help), plur. holpe, part. yholpe (helped weak); delue, dalf, dolue, doluen; clim(b), clam, clommpe, yclombe; swim, swam, plur. swam; ginne, gan, plur. gonne, part. gun; binde, bond (band), plur. bonde (bounde), part. bonden (ybounde); finde, fond (fand), plur. fonde (founde), part. funden (yfonde); drinke, drank (dronk), plur. dronke (drunken), part. drunk (ydronke); werpe, warp; berste, barst, plur. borste, part. yborste.

Middle English. helpe, halp (helped weak), plur. holpen (helpeden weak), part. holpen (helped weak); delue, dalf (deluide), doluen (delueden), doluen (deluen); swimme, swam, plur. swommen? part. swommen? climbe, clamb (clomb), clamben (clomben), part. clomben; beginne, began, bigunnen (gonnen), part. bigunnen (bi-

gonne); renne, ran (rennede), runnen (ronnen), part. ronnen; binde, bonde (bounde), plur. bounden, part. bounden (ybound); finde, fond (foond), fonden (foonden, founden), part. founden; drinke, drank (dronk), plur. dronken, part. drunken (dronken); sterue, starf, storven, ystorven, to die; fizte (feizt), fazt (fauzte, fauzt), plur. fozten, (fouzten, foughten), part. foozte (fouzten, foughten).

New English. help, holp (helped weak), holpen (helped weak); melt, molt (melted weak), molten (melted weak); swim, swum (swam), swum (swam); climb, clomb (climbed weak), clomb (climbed weak); begin, begun (began), begun; run, ran, run; bind, bound, bound; find, found, found; burst, burst; fight, fought,

fought.

# PARADIGMS TO THE MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC STRONG CONJUGATION.

### High German.

	PRESENT	Indicativ	E.	PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.					
	O. H. Ger.	M. H. Ger.	N. H. Ger.	O. H. Ger.	M. H.Ger.	N. H. Ger.			
_	st hilf-u	hilf-e	helf-e	hëlf-e	helf-e	helf-e			
	and hilf-i-s	hilf-e-st	hilf-(e)-st	hëlf-ê-s	helf-e-st	helf-e-st			
	ard hilf-i-t	hilf-e-t	hilf-(e)-t	hëlf-e	helf-e	helf-e			
_	st hëlf-a-mês	helf-e-n	helf-e-n	hëlf-ê-mês	helf-e-n	helf-e-n			
	and hëlf-a-t	helf-e-t	helf-(e)-t	hëlf-ê-t	helf-o-t	helf-e-t			
	ard hëlf-a-nt	helf-e-nt	helf-e-n	hëlf-ê-n	helf-e-n	helf-e-n			
	PRETERITE	Indicati	VE.	Preteri	те Ѕивји	NCTIVE.			
_	st <i>half</i>	half	half	hulf-i	hulf-e	hülf-e			
	and <i>hulf-</i> i	hulf-e	half-(e)-st	hulf-î-s	hulf-e-st	hülf-e-st			
	ard <i>half</i>	half	half	hulf-i	hulf-e	hülf-e			
	ist hulf-u-môs	hulf-e-n	half-e-n	hulf-î-més	hulf-e-n	hülf-e-n			
	and hulf-u-t	hulf-e-t	half-e-t	hulf-î-t	hulf-e-t	hülf-e-t			
	ard hulf-u-n	hulf-e-n	half-e-n	hulf-î-n	hulf-e-n	hülf-e-n			

### IMPERATIVE.

	O. H. Ger.	M. H. Ger.	N. H. Ger.
Sing. 2nd	hilf	hilf	hilf
Plur. 2nd	hëlf-a-t	helf-e-t	helf-(e)-t

# TEUTONIC GRAMMAR.

## PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

O. H. Germ.	M. H. Germ.	N. H. Germ.
helf-u-nt-ir	helf-e-nd-e	helf-e-ad

# PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.

ga-holf-an-ir | go-holf-en | go-holf-en

# English.

# PRESENT INDICATIVE.

		AngSas.	Lay.	Orm.	O. Eng.	M. Eug.	N. Eng.
Sing.	rst	ber-e	bere	bere	ber(e)	ber(e)	bear
	and	(bir-st)	bereat	ber-cut	bel-est	ber-est	bear-est
	3rd	ber-e-8 }	ber-e8	ber-epp	ber-eb	ber-eb	bear-s
Plur.		ber-a5	beres	ber-enn	berep	ber-en	bear

# PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

	AngSax.		O. Eng. M. Eng.	N. Eng.	
	ber-e l ber-e ber-e	ber-e ber-e ber-e	ber(e) ber(e) ber(e)	bear bear bear	
Plur.	ber-en	ber-e(n)	ber(e)	bear	

## IMPERATIVE.

ber	ber	ber	l bear
ber-at	ber-eb	ber-eb	bear

# PRETERITE INDICATIVE.

	AngSax.	Lay. Orm.	O. Eng.	M. Eng.	N. Eng.
Sing. 1st 2nd 3rd	bär bær-e bär	bar ber-e bar	bar(e) bar-e bar(e)	bar-e bar-e	bore bore-st bore
Plur.	bær-on	ber-en	bar-e	bar-en	bore

# PRETERITE SUBJUNCTIVE.

	AngSax.	Lay. Orm.	O. Eng. M. Eng.	N. Eng.
Sing. 1st	i bær-e	ber-e ber-e ber-e	bare bare bare	bore bore bore
Plur.	bær-en	ber-e(n)	bare	bore

Infinitive	ber-an	ber-en	1	bear
PRES. PARTICIPLE	ber-ende	ber-ende	1	bearing
PRET. PARTICIPLE	boren	boren	ı	born(e)

### Dutch.

Pres. Indicative.			PRES. SUBJUNCTIVE.	
	M. Dutch.	N. Dutch.	M. Dutch.	N. Dutch.
Sing. 1st	help-e help-e-s	help (2nd pl.)	help-e help-e-s	help-e (2nd pl.)
3rd	help-e-t	help-e-t	help-e	help-e
Plur. 1st	help-e-n	help-e-n	help-e-n	h lp-e-n
2nd	help <del>-c-t</del>	help-e-t	help-e-t	help-e-t
ard	help-e-n	help-e-n	help-e-n	help-e-n

Pre	T. INDICA	PRET. SU	BJUNCTIVE.	
Sing. 1st	halp	halp	holp-e	holp-e
2nd	halp-e-s	(2nd pl.)	holp-e-s	(2nd pl.)
3rd	halp	halp	holp-e	holp-e
Plur. 1st	holp-e-n	holp-e-n	holp-e-n	holp-e-n
2nd	holp-e-t	holp-e-t	holp-e-t	holp-e-t
2rd	holp-e-n	holp-e-n	holp-e-n	holp-e-n

## M. and N. Dutch.

IMPERATIVE	helpe, helpet	
Infinitive	help-en	
PRES. PARTICIPLE	help-end	
PRET. PARTICIPLE	holp-en	

### Scandinavian.

PRES. INDICATIVE.			PRES. SUI	BJUNCTIVE.
Swe	dish.	Danish.	Swedish.	Danish.
2nd hiäl	p-e-r	hiälp-e-r	hiälp-e	hiälp-e
	p-e-r	hiälp-e-r	hiälp-e	hiälp-e
	p-e-r	hiälp-e-r	hiälp-e	hiälp-e
Plur. 1st hiäl	p-e-n	hiälp-e	hiälp-e	hiälp-e
2nd hiäl		hiälp-e	hiälp-e-n	hiälp-e-n
3rd hiäl		hiälp-e	hialp-e	hiälp-e

PRET. INDICATIVE.			PRET. SU	BJUNCTIVE.
Sing. 1st	halp	hialp	hulp-e	hiulp-e
2nd	ha:p	hialp	hulp-e	hiulp-e
3rd	halp	hialp	hulp-s	hiulp-e
Plur. 1st	hulp-o	hialp-e	hulp-e	hiulp-e
2nd	hulp-e-n	hialp-e	hulp-e-n	hiulp-e
3rd	hulp-o	hialp-e	hulp-e	hiulp-e

	Swedish.	Danish.
IMPERATIVE	{ hiälp hiälpen	<b>hiälp</b> hiälper
Infinitive	hiälpa	hiälpe
PRES. PARTICIPLE	hiälpande	h <b>i</b> älpende
PRET. PARTICIPLE	hulpit	hulpet(en)

# REMARKS ON THE CONJUGATION IN MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC.

### English.

REDUPLICATIONAL CLASSES (I—IV.) It is a peculiarity of the Anglo-Saxon language and its daughters to treat the radical vowel in a very arbitrary manner: a glance at our tables will sufficiently illustrate the fact. This vacillation in the choice of vowels seems to have increased since Anglo-Saxon ceased to be the literary language of educated writers, and was handed down through the channels of the various dialects spoken by the Anglo-Saxon populace. When therefore native writers resumed the vernacular language for literary purposes,

they must have been at a loss as to the choice they had to make out of a great variety of forms, chiefly in the vocalic system, where great confusion apparently prevailed. Layamon, as we see from the conjugational tables, availed himself largely of the abundance of vowels, and often renders one and the same form of a verb by four or five different radicals in different places; his language mastered him, not he his language. The writer of the Ormulum, on the contrary, is commonly content with one or two vowels in one and the same verbal form, and he goes often so far as to surpass many Anglo-Saxon writers in this wise economy of choosing his material out of a heap of matter. In this tasteful choice, it would appear, he had Anglo-Saxon writers of the older and better period as models before him; his own unaided power of discrimination would hardly have been a safe guide through so intricate a subject. It is interesting to observe how in many instances the special forms he selects approach not only the purest Anglo-Saxon, but are often more in harmony with the laws that directed Teutonic speech in general, than those of many an Ang'o-Saxon author before him.

It would lead us too far to follow Layamon with an endeavour to systematize the prolixity of radicals he uses in his conjugation. So far as they can be judged by the standard of phonetic laws, the student will find some direction for their explanation in previous paragraphs. (See the chapters on Vowels and Consonants.) Here we shall limit ourselves to mention a few of his peculiarities. Before a w he likes to introduce a u, e.g. hauven for haven, A. S. heáwan. He has preserved some fragments of the ancient reduplication in the forms hehte (he called, appellavit) and hepte (he ordered, præcepit); but he had no idea of the force of this reduplicated form, for he used it in the present as well, hahte, hahte (appello, præcipio). Where a w succeeds the radical eo, it often converts this diphthong into eu, as heuwen for heowen, bleuwen and blewen for bleowen. Not unfrequently this w is vocalized into u, hence forms such as greu for grewe, growe, bleu for blewe, cneou for cnewe, cneowe. Verbs which in Anglo-Saxon always followed the strong conjugation occasionally assumed weak forms in Layamon, as leop and leopt, pret. of lapen (to leap). The preterite of gan, gon (to go), eode, zeode, finds its explanation in the A. S. ebde = Goth. iddja (preterite of gangan).

The writer of the Ormulum has a peculiarity which, like several others, reminds one of Old Frisian and Old Norse influence; the Anglo-Saxon vowel eo of the preterite he uses only before w, while in every other position he renders it by  $\ell$ , the favourite form of the Northern dialects. In Old English the

w is frequently vocalized into w, and the forms grew, sew, brew, occur side by side with knewe, blewe, brewe. More and more strong verbs assume weak forms, as reeped and rept for wep. The verb oo, gan, has, besides the preterite yede, yode, zede, the form wende, went. In Middle English the radicals begin to be established; out of the great number used in the older language one is fixed upon for a certain form of the verb; and the more the English language approached a settled condition, the more the vowels of the verb also became subject again to rules and liable to systematic arrangement. The participle commonly has the radical of the present, but sometimes it is occupied by that of the preterite as in held, heng. The preterite takes the vowel e, or rather e, which is rendered by ee, as in leep, beet, heew, creew, heeng, or by e, the length of the vowel being indicated by the mute final e, as lepe, bete, &c. yede, zede, and wente are used as in Old English; in the participle we find gon, goon, gone, ygo, go, in the infinitive goon, go. New English has lost many strong verbs altogether which had existed in Anglo-Saxon and Early English, such as læcan (to leap, play), wealdan (to rule), hrépan (to call), fangen (to catch), &c., which are partly still preserved in German, as walten, rufen, fangen, &c. The different forms of the Anglo-Saxon hatan (to be called) have become obsolete; but Spenser has 'he hight' (he is called), pret. 'hot;' and Byron uses the part. 'hight' (called); 'behight,' 'behott.' Some verbs of the reduplicational class have become weak, as to walk, to row, to low, to fold, to leap, to sleep, &c. The o in the Modern English hold, blow, sow, and the other verbs of this class arises either from Anglo-Saxon ea (as healdan), or Anglo-Saxon â (as bláwan, sáwan); in the same manner go from gan, gá: but the o of grow was already in Anglo-Saxon, growan. The distinction of a strong and a weak preterite of the verb hang, we find in the Anglo-Saxon verbs hangan and hangian already, and ever since in all the different periods of the English language; but the distinction in the meaning, i.e. one with transitive the other with intransitive signification was then a general rule as little as now. The participle holden is now used only in the court and law style, the preterite from held having invaded the participle The preterites arew, blew, knew, threw, though preserving the consonant w in writing, have vocalized it into u in pronunciation.

In Ablaut verbs (Classes V to X) the radical was less exposed to change, because it had too deeply taken root to yield easily to external influences. We observe therefore in these verbs a more regular course of the Ablaut through all periods of

the English language. For the direction of the student it may suffice to refer to the respective tables of the conjugational classes and our remarks which precede them.

Class V. Layamon admits here as elsewhere a variety of vowels, while the writer of the Ormulum leaves the Anglo-Saxon Ablant unchanged. As to the latter we have moreover to notice that he does not mark the shortness of the vowel in the preterite plural, whilst everywhere else he strictly adheres to this rule. Perhaps the fact may be explained from a change in the quantity of the radical in the preterite plural A clearly Old Norse form he has in prifann, part. of prifen to presper. In Old English already it happens that the i of the preterite plural is lost and the Ablaut of the singular adopted for the plural as well. We find in the Ablaut of the preterite some difference in the radical according to the locality of the dialect; Northern authors use in the preterite a, while in the south o is the favourite vowel. Middle English is, in some respects, more Anglo-Saxon than Old English, for the plural i of the preterite is commonly preserved in the former, while the latter usually adopts the radical of the singular in the plural also. Wycliffe renders the 6 (= A. S. a) commonly by 00, while Chaucer and Maundeville design nate the length of the vowel by the e mute, hence Wycliffe smoot, Chaucer and Maundeville smole. New English has lost many verbs of this class which were in use in Anglo-Saxon and Early English; others have passed over into the weak declension. the participle we often find the vowel i of the present and o of the preterite side by side, as rode and ridden, smole and smitten, Ben Jonson has some similar participial forms of his own, e. g. ris, rose, and in the same manner of smile, write, bite, ride, &c. Some verbs have adopted the plural i of the preterite in the singular too, as bite, bit, bitten; chide, chid, chidden.

Class VI. Layamon renders the Ablaut of the plural preterite in several ways, while the writer of the Ormulum preserves the ancient u, and renders the Anglo-Saxon eá by e in the preterite singular. Old English condensed this e to e, so that the radicals of the present and preterite singular are identical; sometimes it replaced it by other vowels, so as to make a general rule impossible. But the preterite plural commonly has the ancient u in its weakened form o; exceptionally it has taken the Ablaut of the singular. Middle English adopted the Ablaut of the preterite singular almost generally for the plural; the ancient c is preserved in but few forms, such as crope, gotte. The singular condensed the ancient e = A. S. eá; into e, t ened the radical i of the present into e, so that he

became identical. In order then to have some distinction for these tenses, the weak conjugation became more and more general in verbs of this class, hence rewide, brewed, sethede, fresele, for the A.S. hreáw, breáw, seáð, &c. In the preterite plural there exists a great vacillation between the vowel e of the present and o, the original vowel of the plural; e.g. chosen and chesen, flowen and flewen; but also weak, chesiden. New English has lost altogether some verbs of this class, for others it has adopted the weak form, as creep, crept; cleave, cleft; flee, fled; shoot, shot. But by the side of these we find the strong preterite preserved in clare, the strong participle in cloven, shotten. Many verbs, on the other hand, which in Anglo-Saxon were weak, follow in New English the strong conjugation of this class, as wear, stick, betide, spit, dig, show, from the Anglo-Saxon weak verbs werjan, sticjan, tidjan, spittan, dicjan, sceāwjan; but the

strong forms spat and spitten have become obsolete.

Class VII. The vowels of this class are perhaps less than those of any other subject to the fluctuation of sound, the original Anglo-Saxon Ablaut being preserved through all periods up to Modern English. Lavamon uses stonden for the A. S. standen, and færren by the side of faren; but on the whole the a of the present is left intact. In the preterite the original o is used almost without exception (swar for swor; stop, plur. stepen), though weak forms are occasionally introduced, as ferde, takede, wakeden; in the participle Lavamon has been uncommonly strict and persistent in the application of the original vowel a which but rarely passes into the neighbouring sounds of o and e. The writer of the Ormulum displays his usual tact and sagacity in the application of the Ablaut. The present retains its pure a, except in swere and hefe (lift), where it has Umlaut; the only exception is wessh, wax, wex, in which the preterite however shows the legitimate  $\delta$ ; the preterite participle has but once  $\hat{o}$ , in hôfen, in all other words the ancient a, which in ladenn and stanndenn is marked short, in all other participles long. Old English also preserves the a of the present except in *stonde*; the preterite o is sometimes replaced by a or e, but in most words it retains its position. The participle keeps its ancient a in most words; occasionally it passes into o, e, a, as isuore, up-horen and heren, forsake and Middle English retains the a of the present (except stonde), but commonly marks it long, as schaak and shake, taak, aak and ake; the e in swere, heue, sle is of more ancient date. The preterite o is commonly preserved; but where the o is followed by w it is frequently replaced by e, hence the new preterites slew, drew, for the more ancient slow, drow, = sloz, droz,

A.S. slob, drok, plur. slop-on. Indy-on. The participle has the ancient a, except in some cases where it is invaded by the cof the preterite, e.g. sworze. stopen of stepen to step, and women by the side of mares and meres. Weak forms are introduced in the preterite chapide for also, reselve for result, result, and the participle shapid for shapes, graned for granes, &c. The weak verb quake has in Chancer a strong preterite quete. New English follows the ancient forms in showing an inclination to preserve the Ablaut of this class in its integrity. It has almost without any exception, the ancient o in the present though commonly assuming the German e-sound, as in bake; once the o-sound, wash); the ancient of is rendered either by co., or the o denoted as long by the final e mute, as eleck, took; but here, woke. The Anglo-Saxon stande, which in Old English and Middle English had taken the radical o, stonde, resumes its original vowel in the English stand. The participle commonly takes the legitimate a, except in stood, aroke, where the vowel of the preterite encroaches upon it. Some of the verbs of this class have grown weak in New English, as they have strong and weak forms side by side, especially in the participle, as shared and shaven, loaded and loaden, laded and laden, graved and graven.

Class VIII. Layamon commonly weakens the present i to e. and replaces the latter by a; the preterite singular Anglo-Saxon ā he renders with a, e, a, even ea, and the plural with e or a; the participle retains e, rarely i. In the Ormulum the present tense has the vowels of the Anglo-Saxon. The distinction between the plural and the singular preterite is kept up in the sound as well as the quantity of the vowels, as gaff, gæfenn; gatt, gæten, &c. The participle has e, except zifenn. Old English. While Southern writers (as Robert of Gloucester) apply several vowels in the preterite (e, o, a), Northern authors (as in the Psalms) retain here as elsewhere the ancient a; participle e, rarely i. Middle English also has a great variety of vowels in the preterite singular and plural, which may be seen from our examples to Class VIII (see p. 455). New English preserves the ancient forms in give, gave, given; bid, bade, bidden; but in most cases it allows the vowel of the preterite, a or o, to encroach upon the participle, as get, got, got; sit, sat, sat, &c. Some verbs have become weak, as mete, wreak, &c. The termination en of the participle has frequently been dropped in this as in other classes.

Class IX. Layamon's vowels are subject to the usual fluctustions, while the Ormulum displays a strict vocalic system Ablaut conformable to that of Anglo-Saxon. In the present

find the Anglo-Saxon vowels; in the preterite singular Anglo-Saxon  $\ddot{a}$ , supplanted by the primitive a; in the preterite plural the Anglo-Saxon  $\alpha$  again, and in the participle the ancient o or u.

Old English. The distinction between the Ablaut of the singular and that of the plural preterite has almost disappeared, except in the different quantity. Southern writers (as Robert of Gloucester) prefer e as the Ablaut of the preterite, the Northern (as in the Psalms) adhere to the ancient a; the former have stel, ber, brek, the latter stal, nam, cam, &c. The participle has o Middle English preserves the ancient vowels of throughout. the present, but the quantity seems to be altered in Wycliffe's teere, breek, perhaps also in stele, bere, and the like. The plural and singular of the preterite are rarely distinguished by the Ablaut; perhaps the distinction of quantity remained, as in bracke, plur. braken, breeken; but also beer, plur. beeren. The participle has o; but in its termination en, either the e or the \* is sometimes dropped, e. g. stoln for stolen, come for comen. New The verb, come, came, come, appears to deviate from the forms of this class; but it will soon be understood if we bear in mind that its present is a contracted form, as the Anglo-Saxon cuman for an ancient quiman, qviman; the participle has the same vowel o, originating in the same contraction. The preterite a is commonly replaced by o, which has taken possession of the participle too; torn, born, have dropped the e, come the n of the participle termination en.

Class X. Layamon has the i of the present usually before m and n, sometimes the weakened form e; in other verbs he uses e, or eo, or æ, or even u. The Ablaut a and ea of the preterite singular still occurs, the former being replaced by o before m and n. The Anglo-Saxon Brechung ea is rendered with e, a, or a. The u of the plural preterite is weakened to o, and thus the singular and plural Ablaut are in many cases identical, and every distinction between the two gradually disappears. In the participle u is usually kept before m and n, in all other positions o. We find some weak forms already in use side by side with the strong, as barnde and born, rongen and ringedon, clemde and clumben. The Ormulum also has i in the present before m and n, elsewhere e. Metathesis, as in Layamon, is used in the verbs erne, eorne=irne, Goth. rinna. The Ablaut of the preterite singular never fluctuates from the Anglo-Saxon and primitive a. The shortness of the a is everywhere marked by the gemination of the following consonant; but n followed by a media is never doubled. What we stated with regard to the

singular Ablaut, holds good for the plural Ablaut u. Participles have u before m and n, in every other case o. Old English. The present is treated as in the preceding dialects. In the singular preterite, Southern writers prefer o, Northern the original a. The plural Ablaut u, or its weakened form o, is sometimes preserved, but it often gives way to singular a, as in swan, gan, ran, fand, and the like, used both in the singular and plural. The participle has commonly o, rarely u. Middle English has in the present tense the same radicals as the preceding dialects. It is a remarkable fact that Wycliffe makes the radical of the preterite long before n with a media, as foonde, soong, bounde.

May we bring this fact to bear on the omission of gemination in the Ormulum under the same circumstances, and draw the conclusion that the writer of the Ormulum considers the radical long in the position just mentioned? The plural Ablaut u is sometimes preserved, or changed into o, often however replaced by the Ablaut of the singular. The participle as in Old Eng-New English. Many verbs of this class have been lost, lish. others have turned weak; others again use strong and weak forms, as climbed and clomb, melted and molten, &c. The i is commonly preserved in the present, though often lengthened into the diphthongal sound (=Germ. ei). The preterite singular has retained the original a in some, but adopted the plural u, or its lengthened form ou in far more verbs; the Ablaut of the participle is identical with that of the present. Distinguish between to wind (spirare, canere), and to wind (torquere); the latter is strong, the former, derived from wind, should be weak. Sir Walter Scott has 'again his horn he wound' in the Lady of the Lake; but 'he winded his horn' in Ivanhoe.

### High German.

Middle High German. The thematic or connective vowel is everywhere weakened to e, while the radical of the present theme remains the same as in Old High German, and in some cases where the radical is i it is unchanged in verbs in which Old High German had weakened it to e. Concerning the thematic or connective e which precedes the personal terminations, we have a few remarks to make as to the manner in which it is affected by the latter. It is a rule generally observed in Middle High German that the unaccented e is mute if preceded by a short vowel with a simple consonant, and that this e mute is dropped altogether. With regard to the verb we have to consider the following cases. Where the thematic e is final and

preceded by l or r, apocope must take place, as mal, var, bir, til, for male, rare, bire, stile. Apocope according to this rule must occur in the 1st sing. present indicative, and 1st and 2nd sing. present subjunctive of verbs of Classes VII and IX, in the 2nd sing preterite of Classes V and VI, &c. If the thematic e is followed by the personal terminations -st, -t, -u, -nt, and the infinitive -n, it suffers syncope in all those verbs where it is subject to apocope when final; hence melst (molis) for mel-e-st, still (volat). maln (molamus), malt (molitis), helt (celatis), rirn (ceciderunt, kurt (eligistis), kurt (eligeretis), maln (molere), keln (celare), steln (volare), &c. This syncope may take place also after m and n, though the rule is not generally observed, and before an -n or -nt of the termination syncope must be avoided; hence nemen, nement, not nemn, nemnt. But in this position both the  $\epsilon$  and the termination are dropped together, as in max (to remind) for manen. Syncope may further occur after s and A, if the thematic e is followed by the terminations -st, -t, as list (legis) for lis-e-st (lis-st is of course contracted into list), list (legit) for lis-e-t, sikst (vides), sikt (videt). Syncope may take place after the media b or g if the thematic e is followed by the terminations -st or -t, as gibt (dat), ligt (jacet). Though after t no syncope is admitted, it may happen that where a t of the root is followed by a t of the termination, the latter, together with the thematic vowel may be dropped, as git (evellit) for gitet. (Compare man for manen, mentioned above.) The unaccented e may not be omitted where it is not mute or silent, that is, if preceded by a long vowel in the root or by two consonants. Peculiar to some Middle High German dialects is the tendency to drop the infinitive termination u, sometimes together with the thematic e, as sehe, valle, man, var, for sehen, vallen, manen, raren, a tendency which has its parallel in Anglo-Saxon already, while what there was an exception becomes, since the period of Old English, the general rule. Not to be mixed up with this loss of the infinitive termination is the occasional disappearance of the personal terminations under the influence of a succeeding or suffixed pronoun, a phenomenon which is known as inclination. Such takes place in Middle High German in the 1st plur., as heize-wir (appellamur), neme-wir (capimus), for heizen, nemen. It is difficult to account for the termination a which is added occasionally to the singular imperative, as in láza, ráta, for láz, rát. Grimm considers it as a new suffixed particle and not the old thematic a.

Concerning the manner in which the radical is affected by the inflexions a few remarks may suffice. There is an alternation of

the radicals in and is in Middle High German, as of in and is in Old High German; thus, sing. ginze, ginzes, ginzes, ginzes, plur. giezen, giezet, giezen. About the original cause of this alternation of sound compare p. 430. UMLAUT takes place in Classes II and VII, where a is converted into e, as valle, rellest, vellet; var, vert; grabe, grebt; except before -lt, -lk, where the radical a remains, as walte, waltest, waltet. Umlant of a into a takes place in Class I, e. g. rate, ratet; laze, lazet. In the 2nd sing. preterite indicative and throughout the preterite subjunctive we find the Umlant of us into ue, of u into v, of a into a, as vuoren, vuere, kurn, kür, lasen, lase.

The consonants of the root, especially if final, are also variously affected by the inflexions. Gemination is always reduced to the simple consonant when at the end of the word, or in any position after a long vowel; e.g. izze, az, dzen; triffe, traf, trafen. A media, when final, is converted into the respective tenuis, as, tribe, treip, sige, seie; in the same manner h converted into ch, as, sihe, sach (see, saw). Where syncope takes place it is often accompanied by a vocalization of the preceding consonant, thus tregest by syncope becomes tregst (tre-g-st), and then treist (tre-i-st), tregt, treit, gibst, gist, ligt, lit. The relation between g and h and ch respectively has been slightly modified since Old High German times. There are still the forms slake, twahe, giwahe, in the present, but in the singular preterite we find sluoc, twuoc, gewuoc, while according to Middle High German phonetic laws we should expect sluoch for Old High Ger-The exceptional form sluoc, &c., may be explained as the representative of Otfried's Old High German sing. preterite sluog; the imperative however is slach, twach, gewach. similar relation of the mentioned consonants we find in Classes V, VI, VIII, as like, lech; vlinke, vloch; sike, sack, the ch being used in the imperative also; but in the preterite plural and participle some verbs retain the spirant, others replace it by the guttural media, as sahen, lihen, vluhen; but sluogen, twuogen, gewuogen, zigen, rigen, &c. Rhotacism occurs in the forms rirn (Class V); kurn, verlurn, vrurn (Class VI); waren, and sometimes naren, laren (Class VIII); gir, gar, garen, gorn (Class IX).

The strong verbs with the suffix ja, as swern (to swear), heben (to lift), entseben (to taste, sapere), biten (to ask, pray), sitzen (to sit), are, as in Old High German, weak in the present only, strong in all other forms.

New High German. The short radical being everywhere lengthened, the Middle High German rule concerning the apocope of the e mute is of course no longer in force. Syncope of

the thematic e can never take place except before the termination a of the 2nd sing, and the -t of the 3rd sing, while before the set the 2nd plur, syncope is rather avoided, though it is not except to use it. But in the positions just mentioned syncope may rever take place if the thematic e is preceded by a simple to a and the vowel of the root is unmodified; we therefore say, which is a for heiß-est and heißet, but maltest, which is a for heiß-est and heißet, but maltest, which is a copy is avoided, as actually hallest, rathest; and plur, he set, each say.

The national is in various ways affected by the inflexions. The wavel on the present has yielded its position in the 1st sing, to the wakened form a, but in the 2nd and 3rd sing, the original spreserved, while in the plur, again e finds place in the rost, st as in Middle High German and Old High German. The Model Wigh German in is, in New High German, commonly while extra the colour where an alternation of vowels occurs in the mass tracese, as between the Old High German in and in, While High German  $v_i$  and  $ie_i$  the former is occasionally given with the latter always e; e.g. 1st fliege (not fleuge, because New High German has converted the radical i into e, and is metry on the est surger if Middle High German conditions still prevailed a would certainly be thinged, and flought, and flought; A ... with throughout; in the same manner of and red god on a set of a stylerat, of kriechen, kreuchst, But these forms with a are used only in the postic sayle when we sing of Alles was kreucht und fleugt, but some energy weeks to be a larger, all persons of the present which will be and and 3rd  $s_{i}^{m}(z) = C_{i}^{m}(s,s,1,11,111,111,111,111)$  where z is converted into  $\ddot{a}, \dot{a}$  into a,  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{L}}$  . The uu and v of Class IV word is a Uniform, but it accepts the Uniform oc, as have, Pat 8 9 , 8 . 32. The preterite subjunctive has I when so much a into a mito of a leta of d into oc, e.g. 

The constraints are less frequently affected by the inflexions than in Midd'e High German. Gemination or any other combination of consonants remains unchanged, whether it occur at the end or in the middle of a word. But inorganic gemination

The new formations satisfies by a from the plurals standen, traffen, had better be avoided

sometimes takes place and then protects the original shortness of the vowel, as nême, nimmst, nimmt, but the plur. again nêmen, kc.; kommen, kommst, kommt, plur. kommen, kc. The inorganic correption of the radical of the preterite singular is often accompanied with gemination, as reiten, pret. ritt, plur. ritten, by the side of M. H. Germ. ritle, pret. reit, plur. riden. The consonants h and g have settled their mutual relations to the effect that g occupies the only verb schlågen (M. H. Germ. slahen, O. H. Germ. slahen, to slay), while h takes possession of all the rest, as leiken (to lend), zeihen (to accuse), flichen (to flee), geschêhen (to happen); but they share the possession of one verb, ziehen (to draw, pull), pret. zôg. Where syncope is admitted in the 3rd sing. a t, d, or th of the root absorbs the t of the termination; e. g. ræth for råth-et, hält for halt-et, læd for lúd-et.

RHOTACISM. The r for s which first appeared in the pret. plur. forms waren, frören, kören, verlören, penetrated from there into the pret. sing. war, frör, kör, verlör, and then again into the New High German pres. friere, verliere; but the pres. of kör is

still kiese, not kiere.

Strong verbs originally formed with the suffix ja, namely schwoeren (for schweren, to swear), heben (to lift), bitten (to beg), sitzen (to sit), are still inflected strong except in the present, where they are weak, as we see from the imperative, schwoere, hebe, bitte, sitze.

#### Dutch.

Middle Dutch. The alternation of i and e does not occur, but a few verbs have i, most of them e, throughout the present tense; as bidden, sitten, ligghen, but gheven, helpen, &c.

Concerning the manner in which the vowels are affected by the inflexions, we have chiefly to mention the change of a into ae before rp, rf, rt, which resembles the Brechung in the Old Teutonic languages, as waerp, staerf, waert. The contraction of -old (=ald) into -oud is one of the most characteristic features of the Dutch languages; e.g. houden for holden, halden; gouden for golden, M. H. Germ. gulten. The conjugation is greatly disturbed by the inorganic production or correption of the radical under the influence of the succeeding inflexional vowels; thus varet, wevet, become vært, wéft; thus also by inclination, as waft, for waf het.

Consonants are not considerably affected by the inflexions. Gemination is reduced to the simple consonant at the end of a word, as vel from vallen. The consonants d, gh, v, can never

hold a final position, but are changed into their corresponding tetues, so that as final consonants there occur only p, t, c, f, c. Where syncope is admitted, a t or d of the root and the t of the termination appear as one, as  $h\acute{e}t$  (vocatur),  $r\acute{t}t$  (equitat), let (sinit . biet offert), bit (rogat). wet (transit), for  $h\acute{e}tet$ ,  $r\acute{t}tet$ , late, biedet, biddet, wadet. (Comp. M. H. Germ. and N. H. Germ. 1PP. 470, 471.) The h is dropped in slaen, dwaen, sien, vlien, but appears as ch in the pret. sloech, dwoech, sach, plur. sloeghen, dwoeghen, saghen. Rhotacism takes place in verloren, part. of verliesen, verlos; the same in koren, vroren, part. of kieven, vriesen.

The strong verbs in ja, namely sweren, heffen, beseffen, bidden,

sitten, make the present weak.

New Dutch. The e for i in the present tense is almost general even before m and n. Transitions from one c'ass into another are frequent, as from Class VII to II, so from X to IV; e. g. hief, wies, where ie (Class II) stands for oe (Class VII); but wierp and kierf may be considered the result of the r in rp, rf, like the Brechung in the Anglo-Saxon wearp, cearf, and perhaps the Middle Dutch waerp, caerf. It is very remarkable that New Dutch dissolves again the combination -oud which Middle Dutch had produced of -old, and thus makes smolt, smolten, gold, golden, for the Middle Dutch smout, smouten, gout, gouden. Inflexional accuracy, says Grimm', gained the better of phonetic meety. The only form housen was preserved by the side of the pretente hield. Gemination is reduced to the simple consonant, if final; r and z at the end of a word turn f and s; d and g may be final. The dentals d and t are dropped before the t of the termination, as sluit (claudit) for sluitet.

### Scandinavian.

Swedish. The Old Norse Umlaut finds no place in this New Scandinavian dialect. The occurrence of  $\mathfrak{g}$ , iu (ju) and i in the present of Class VI is independent of the law that directed the use of one or the other of those vowels in Old Norse. All geminations, except mm, nn, remain at the end of the word. Syncope takes place occasionally in the present singular as bar for barer, blir for blifver.

The strong verbs in ja retain the ancient Umlaut and the gemination of the consonant, and re-introduce the j, as sværja, hæfja, bedja, siltja, ligga; and added to these lé (for leja), doe (for doeja).

<sup>1</sup> Grammar, i. p. 992.

Danish. The present faldt, holdt, bandt, fandt, have no Ablaut. Roots ending with ld, nd, of Classes II and X are changed into ldt, ndt, in the preterite, as faidt, bandt. The plural preterite not only loses its own Ablaut, but even its termination e, and is perfectly identical with the present; necessarily so after a combination of consonants in Classes II and X, optionally after a single consonant. We have the reverse of the case in saae and laae for saa and laa, where the plural e has penetrated into the singular.

The strong verbs in ja with weak present may be recognized, as in Swedish, by the Umlaut, gemination, and the j of the derivation; they are—hedder (O. N. heitir), svärger, ler, doer, sidder,

ligger, some of ancient, some of more modern formation.

Strong and weak preterites occur side by side in *fárede*, *foer*, *jágede*, *jóg*, *grínte*, *grén*, &c. Some verbs have assumed a weak preterite chiefly in Classes V and VI.

## WEAK CONJUGATIONS 1.

### PARADIGMS2.

## FIRST CONJUGATION (CONNECTIVE ja).

### PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Gothic.		Old High German.		Old Saxon.	
Sing. Ist nas-ja 2nd nas-ji-s Plur. Ist nas-ja-m Dual Ist nas-jô-s	sôk-ja sôk-ei-s sôk-ja-m sôk-jô-s	ner-ju ner-i-s ner-ja-mês	send-u send-i-s send-a-mês	ner-ju ner-i-s ner-ja-d	send-ju send-i-s send-ja-n

Anglo-Saxon.		Old Frisian.		Old Norse.	
Sing. 1st ner-je 2nd ner-e-st	sêc-e sêc-e st	ner-e ner-i-st	sêk-e sêk-i-st (sêk-st)	tel tel-r	kenn-i kenn-i-r
Plur. 1st ner-ja-5	séc-a-ő	(ner-st) ner-a-th	sêk-a-th	tel-ju-m	kenn-u-m

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Concerning the three conjugations of derivative verbs, the three modes of adding the suffix aya, the formation of the weak preterite, the use of personal terminations,

<sup>&</sup>amp;c., compare pp. 366, 382, 388, 389.

2 Only the 1st and 2nd singular, 1st dual, and 1st plural, are given in the paradigms; the student who has mastered the strong conjugations will easily make out the rest for himself. Peculiarities of the different weak conjugations will be noticed in our Remarks following upon the Paradigms.

## PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

Gothic.		Old High German.		Old Saxon.		
Plur. est	nas-jai-s nas-jai-ma	sõk-jau sõk-jai-s sõk-jai-ma sõk-jai-va	ner-je ner-jê-s ner-jê-mês	send-e send-ê-s send-ê-mês 	ner-ja(e) ner-ja-s( jes) ner-ja-n	acad-ja acad-ja-s acad-ja-s
	Anglo-	Saxon.	Old 1	Prisian.	Old N	orse.

Anglo-Saxon.		Old Frisian.		Old Norse.	
Sing 1st ner-je 2nd ner-je Plur. 1st ner-je-n	sêc-e sêc-e-n	ner-i(e) ner-i ner-i(e)	sêk-i(e) sêk-i sêk-i(e)	tcl-i tcl-i-r tcl-i-m	kenn-i kenn-i-n kenn-i-n

## IMPERATIVE.

Gothic.		Old High German.		Old Saxon.	
Sing. 2nd nas-ci Plur. 2nd nas-ji-b 1st nas-ja-m Dual 2nd nas-ja-ts	sők-ei sők-ei-þ sók-ja-m sók-ja-ts	ner-i ner-ja-t	send-i send-a-t	ner-i ner-ja-d	send-l send-ja-d
Anglo-Saxon.		Old Frisian.		Old Norse.	
Sing. 2nd ner-e Plur. 2nd ner-ja-8	sêc sêc-a-d	ner-e ner-a-th	eêc-e eêc-a-th	tel tel-i-8	kenn kenn-i-8

## Infinitive.

Gothic.	O. H. Germ.	Old Saxon.	AngSax.	O. Fris.	Old Norse.
n 18-ja-n	ner-ja-n	ner-ja-n	ncr-ja-n	ner-a	tel-ja
sik-ja-n	send-a-n	send-a-n	sêc−u-n	rêk-a	kenn-a

## PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

nas-ja-nd-s	ner-ja-nt-êr	ner-ja-nd	ner-je-nd-e	ner-a-nd	te'-ja-nd-i
sik-ja-nd-s	ner-ja-nt-êr send-a nt-êr	send-ja-nd	sêc-c-nd-e	sék-a-nd	l:enn-a-nd-i

## PRETERITE INDICATIVE.

Gothic.	Old High German.	Old Saxon.	
Sing. 1st nas-i-da¹ sôk-i-da 2nd nas-i-dê-s sôk-i-dê-s Plur. 1st nas-i-dêd-u-m sôk-i-dêd-u-m Dual 1st nas-i-dêd-u sôk-i-dêd-u	ner-i-ta sun-ta ner-i-tô-s san-tô-s ner-i-tu-mês san-tu-mês	ner-i-du san-d ner-i-dò-s san-d ner-i-du-n san-d	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The suffix of the weak preterite is the preterite of a Gothic verb, the forms of

# PRETERITE INDICATIVE (continued).

Anglo-Saxon.		Old Frisian.		Old Norse.	
ner-e-de	sóh-te	ner-e-de (ner-de)	sôch-te	tal-da	ken-da
ner-e-de-st ner-e-do-n	sôh-te-st sóh-tu-n	ner-e-de-st ner-e-do-n (ner-don)	sôch-te-st sôch-to-n	tal-di-r töl-du-m	ken-di-r ken-du-m

## PRETERITE SUBJUNCTIVE.

	Old High German.		Old Saxon.	
as-i-dêl-jau sôk-i-dêd-jau	ner-i-ll	san-ti	ner-i-di	
as-i-dêd-ei-s sôk-i-dêd-ei-s	ner-i-lî-s	san-ti-s	ner-i-di-s	
as-i-dêd- \	ner-i-lî-mês	san-ti-môs	ner-i-di-n	

Anglo-Saxon.		Old	Old Frisian.		Old Norse.	
ner-e-de	sôh-te	ner-de	sôch-te	tel-di	ken-di	
ner-e-de	sôh-te	ner-de	sôch-te	tel-di-r	ken-di-r	
ner-e-de-n	sôh-te-n	ner-de	sôch-te	tel-di-m	ken-di-m	

## PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.

Gothic.	O. H. Ger.	Old Sax.	A.S.	O. Fris.	0. N.
	ga-ner-i-t			L.	
sôk-i-þ-s	ga-send-i-t (ga-san-t)	send-i-d	s-8h-t	sôch-t	

## PASSIVE PRESENT.

## Gothic.

	Indicative.	Subjunctive.
Sing. 1st	nas-ja-da	nas-jui-dau
	nas-ja-za	nas-jai-zau
3rd Plur.	nas-ja-da nas-ja-nda	nas-jai-dau nas-jai-ndau

would be didan, dad, dêdum, didans (to do); the terminations da, dês, nd for an original dad, dast, dad; the rest are the regular forms of a verb.

# SECOND CONJUGATION (CONNECTIVE $\hat{\mathbf{0}}$ ).

## PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Gothic.	O. H. Germ.	Old Saxon.	Anglo-Saxon.	Old Frisian.	ON N
Sing. 1st salb-8	salp-ô-m	scaw-ô-n	sealf-je (sealf-ige)	salv-je	tells
2nd salb-ó-s	salp-6-s	ecan-ó-s	sealf-a-st	salv-a-st	kall-e
Plur. 1st sulb-ô-m	salp-ô-mês	scarc-6-d	seal i-ja-6	salv-ja-th	kill-u
		(scaw-ô-ja-d)	(sealf-igea-8)		1
Dual 1st salb-ö-s .	1	1 (0.2.2.)	(,	۱	١
	PR	esent Subju	I <b>NCTIVE.</b>		
Sing. 1st salb-s	salp-6-e	scaw-ô (scaw-ôgea)	sealf-je (sealf-ige)	salv-je	kall-
2nd salb-ó-s	salp-6-ê-s	scasc-o-s	sealf-je	salr-je	kall-i
	1	(saw-ôjes)	<u> </u>	ł	i.
Plur. 1st salb-ô-m	salp-ó-ê-mês	scaw-6-n	scalf-je-n (scalf-ige-n)	salr-je	kalli
Dual 1st salb-ò-s		<b></b>	,,,	l	
		Infinitiv	_ <del>-</del>		
sulb-ô-n	salp-ó-n	ecaw-6-n   (scaw-ôgean)   (scaw-6jan)	scalf-ja-n   (scalf-iga-n)   (scalf-igca-n)	ealr-ja	kalla
		Imperativ	ve.		

Sing. 2nd sall+ô Plur. 2nd salb-ô-þ	salp-8 salp-6-t	scaw-ô scaw-ô-d	sealf-a scalf-ja-5 (scalf-igea-5)	salv-a salr-ja-th	kall-a kall-i-5
Plur. 1st sall-6-m			` * /	••	
Dual 1st salb-6-ts		•••	•••	•••	1

# PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

salb-6-nds	salp-ô-nt-êr	scaw-ô-nd (scaw-ô-gea-nd)	sealf-je-nd-e	salv-ja-nd	kall-a-1
		(scaw-6-yea-nd)	(sealf-ige-nd-e)	);	

# PRETERITE INDICATIVE.

Sing. 1st salb-ô-da 2nd salb-ò-dê-s	salp-ô-tô-s			salr-a-de salv-a-de-st	
Plur. 1st salb-ô-dêd-}	salp-0-tu-mês	scaw-ô-du-n	sealf-ô-do-n	salv-a-do-n	köll-u
Dual tet salladadat					l

## PRETERITE SUBJUNCTIVE.

Gothic.	O. H. Germ.	Old Saxon.	Anglo-Saxon.	Old Frisian.	Old Norse.
salb-6-dåd } jau } d salb-6-dåd- ei-s	salp-8-ti	scaw-ô-da	sealf-8-de	salv-a-de	kall-a-8i
d salb-ô-déd-	salp-8-ti-s	scaro-ô-dô-s	sealf-6-de	salv-a-de	kall-a-5i-r
	salp-ô-tî-mês	scaw-ô-du-n	sealf-ù-de-n	salv-a-de	kall-a-5i-m

# PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.

salb-ô-b-s	alp-o-t-tr	scaw-8-d	scalf-6-d	salr-a-d	kall-a-5-r
• • • • • •	1 2	10000	1 0000	1 0000 00 00	1

# THIRD CONJUGATION (CONNECTIVE 21).

hab-au hab-ai-s hab-ai-ma	O. H. Germ.  hap-ê-e hap-ê-ê-s hap-ê-ê-mês
hab-ai-s	hap-ê-ê- <b>s</b>
	۱ ٠
PRET. S	UBJUNCTIVE.
hab-ai-dê lje hab-ai-dêde	is hap-ê-tî-s
kab-ai-dêdei	ma hap-ê-tî-mês
hic. O. H. G	erm.
	ês hab-ai-dêdei

	Gothic.	O. H. Germ.	
Imperative	hab-ai hab-ai-þ hab-a-m hab-a-t <b>s</b>	hap-ê hap-ê-t	
Infinitive	hab-a-n	hap-ê-n	
PRES. PARTICIPLE	hab-a-nds	hap-ê-nt-êr	
PRET. PARTICIPLE	hab-ai-þ-s	hap-ê-t-êr	

### REMARKS.

1. In all the dialects there are verbs conjugated after the find and second; the third conjugation is limited to the Gothic and Old High German. Parallel verbs in the other dialects, which in the latter belonged to the third, must follow either the find or the second conjugation.

The personal terminations are the same as in the strong conjugations; the few exceptions are mentioned in the chapter

on personal terminations in the Teutonic languages.

## FIRST CONJUGATION.

Gothic. The radical is either short or long; if the former, the suffix ja is treated in the same manner as the suffix -a in strong verbs, hence it is changed into ji in the 2nd and 3rd singular and 2nd plural. After a long radical the suffix ja, or rather ji, is, in the persons just mentioned, changed into ei; e.g. nas-ji-s, nas-ji-b; sók-ei-s, sók-ei-b. In the preterite, all verbs of this class change the suffix ja, ji, into the connective vowel i, as nas-i-da, sók-i-da.

Old High German also makes a distinction between verbs with a short or long radical. The former condense the ja or rather ji of the 2nd and 3rd singular into i, and in the pretente into i again; hence ner-ju (a of ja weakened to u, like the a of strong verbs), 2nd ner-i-s, &c., preterite ner-i-ta. Sometimes the j of the suffix appears as g, as nergan for nerjan, nerige for ner-ju, or it is assimilated to a preceding r, as in nerran; but where ja is already condensed into i gemination cannot take

place, hence neris, nerit.

Those verbs which have the radical long by nature or position retain only the vowel a and drop the j of the combination ja, except where it is already condensed in i, e. g. sendu, sendamés; but sendis, sendit; in the preterite the connective i is usually dropped altogether, and if so, Rück-Umlaut takes place; as san-ta, preterite of sendan, rarely send-i-ta. In this case the preterite suffix ta, if preceded by d or t, in combination with another consonant, causes these dentals to be dropped; as san-ta for sand-ta, heft-an, haf-la; and if preceded by a gemination, resolves it into the simple consonant, e. g. nenn-an, nan-ta; but the simple dental is retained, e. g. huot-an, huot-ta, plid-an, plid-ta. Several authors, chiefly Isidor (eighth century), and Tatian (ninth century), join the suffix da to the root by means of the connective i,

ming the preterite quite after the analogy of the Gothic, so at a difference in the treatment of the long and short radicals not exist. Other writers, on the contrary, go far to annimite the short forms altogether, and to treat all the verbs of class as those with a long radical. This is brought about by assimilation of the j of ja to the preceding consonant and gemination thus produced; e.g. zellan for zeljan, makes zellu, the jetlit, pret. zal-ta—an example where the verb is treated as its gemination was organic, the j is dropped altogether, the reterite suffix joined to the root without the connective i, and fuck-Umlaut takes place. In the course of time this transition of verbs with a short radical into the rank of those with a ong radical, become more and more frequent in this as well as the other dialects.

Old Saxon keeps up the distinction between verbs with a ong or a short radical, but it frequently mixes the two classes no as to deprive certain verbs of their original character. Thus t uses the connective i after long radicals on one hand, and, on the other, renders short radicals long by inorganic gemination and makes them drop the connective i in the preterite. We and therefore better classify all these verbs into such as take the connective i and such as do not. Verbs with the preterite in ida are (1) the few which still have a short radical followed by simple consonant, as ferjan (remigare), nerjan (servare), queljan cruciare). Like these are sometimes treated those which dispolve their inorganic gemination into the simple consonant in the preterite, e.g. quelljan (necare), pret. quelida. (2) Verbs which join the thematic ja directly to the long vowel of the root, us sajan (to sow), strojan (to strew). (3) Verbs in which the ruffix ja is preceded by a combination of consonants one of which is a liquid, or by the combination sk; e.g. mahljan, to speak; *trenkjan*, potare (Germ. tränken); wernjan, recusare; na ojan<sup>1</sup>, niti; nemnjan, to name; leskjan, to extinguish. (4) Verbs which have a long radical followed by a single consonant, may take the preterite in -ida, or in -da, e.g. dôpjan (to baptize), pret. dôpida and dôpta; hêljan (to heal), hêlida and hêlda. All other verbs which do not belong to one of the classes just enumerated, must make their preterite in -da, that is, without the connective vowel i. Verbs of the latter class may have Rück-Umlaut in the preterite, about which however no rule can be fixed upon. Examples are hebbjan (to have), pret. habda; leggjan (to lay), lagda and legda; seggjan (to say), sagda; selljan (to give, sell), salda; tell**derivative** e, as  $s\acute{e}c$ , and sing. imper. of  $s\acute{e}can$ ,  $s\acute{e}cjan$ , to seek. The preterite suffix de is changed into te, if preceded by a tenuis or the spirants s, h, single or double; in this case the guttural tenuis k must be changed into h (except in the combination nc), e.g.  $s\acute{e}c$ -e.  $s\acute{o}h$ -te. As in Old Saxon, a dental, if the last letter in a combination of consonants which precede the suffix de or te, must be dropped, mn must give up the n and every germination must be dissolved; e.g. send-an, sen-de;  $h\ddot{u}ft$ -an,  $h\ddot{u}f$ -te; nemn-an, nem-de; cyss-an, cys-te.

The Rück-Ümlaut is limited to the following:—e returns to a, and é to ó, in all those verbs of which the stem ends in l or c; e g. fellan (to fell), pret. fealde; á-stellan (statuere), d-steald; reccan (to count, exponere), realte; sécan (to seek), sólte; récan (to care), rôlte.

Old Frisian. Short and long as in the preceding dialects. **Short verbs also dismiss the j of the derivative suffix.** very few in number: bera (decere), era (arare), nera (servare), wera (defendere), lema (debilitare), spera (investigare). These may add the preterite suffix by means of the connective e(=i=ja), though very rarely they make use of it. There is a great number of short verbs which by means of inorganic gemination have become long, as sella (=selja, tradere); sella, to set; tella, to number; segga, to say, &c., which in the same manner as verbs with organic gemination, add the suffix da without the connective. In this case de or te may be the form to be chosen according to the nature of the preceding consonant. (See Old Saxon.) The participle preterite also has d (id, ed, in verbs with short radical) or t, as the preterite takes de or te; e g. sell-a, sel-de, sel-d; wisa, wis-de, wis-d; but kess-a, kes-te, kes-t; acht-a, ach-te, Rück-Umlaut occurs in the preterite only where the stem had a final k or its gemination, as sêk-a, sôch-te; thekka, thack-te. Where syncope of the derivative or connective vowel takes place, the consonants of the root and of the personal terminations are liable to the same modifications as in the strong conjugation. (See p. 429 sqq.)

Old Norse. Long or short radical. The present of those with a short radical has lost in the singular the derivative ja, except in segja (to say) and pegja (to be silent), where the derivative suffix appears, as in those with a long radical, condensed into i; as segi, segir, &c. In the plural the ja always reappears, but under divers modifications. The j of the suffix ja is assimilated to the preceding consonant only in the case of gj, and forms the inorganic gemination gg; but nevertheless the j is not lost, but finds its place again behind the gemination it has caused,

hence seggia for segja. The suffix ja preceded by the consonants l, m, n, r, never assimilates its j, and therefore never cause gemination in these positions. Contrary to the rule obeyed in Old High German the Old Norse dialect admits of Rück-Umlant in verbs with a short, not in those with a long radical. But setja (to set) and selja (to deliver, to give), though of short radical, make pret. setta, selda, not satta, salda. Under any crcumstance the suffix of the preterite joins the verb without the connective i, except in the participle lag-i-8-r, occurring in the Edda, for lag-5-r. The verbs with a long radical have dropped the j of the suffix ja, but preserved the a variously modified. Only those verbs in which g or k precedes the suffix ja we find the spirant j preserved, as in Old High German, whenever in the combination ja or ju; but in ji the vocalization in i takes place, as hengja, sing. heng-i, heng-i-r (for heng-ji, heng-ji-r), plur. heng-ju-m, heng-i-d, heng-ja; in the same manner merk-ja. The suffix of the preterite appears as da after l, m, n; as da upon r, f, b, g, and upon a vowel; as to when succeeding a p, t, k, or to As in the other dialects, gemination is dissolved before the preterite suffix, except the combination kk. The dentals d and t preceding the preterite suffix are dropped; & is assimilated to the d of the suffix and they thus make the geminations -dda, 25 quedja, pret. quadda.

# SECOND AND THIRD CONJUGATIONS.

Gothic. Some forms fluctuate between the third and first conjugations, as hatan and hatjan, to hate. The strong verb báuan, to build (Germ. bauen), has in the 3rd sing. pres. báun and báuaip. The modus-suffix i disappears where it comes in direct contact with the thematic or connective vowels  $\delta$  of the

second, and ai of the third conjugation.

Old High German. Two Old High German writers, Tatian and Otfried (both ninth century) throw out the modus-suffix i (=i=ya) in the subjunctive present of the third and fourth conjugations, and join the personal terminations immediately to the thematic i, or i, as salpi, salpi, salpi, salpi, salpi, salpi, salpi, hapi, hapi,

Ablant, as well as the suffix ta, and theref re are commonly designated as belonging to the mixed form of conjugation, as denkan, to think; dunkan, videri, which make the preterite dáhta, dúhta. More about these under the chapter of Anomalous Verbs. hapén, which makes some forms after the first conjugation, we find in the late Old High German often contracted in the 1st and 3rd pers. sing., e. g. hán, hát, for hapén, habén, hapét, habét.

Old Saxon shows in the second conjugation a peculiar tendency of adding the suffix ja twice to the root, which, for instance, appears in the infinitive termination ojan, or -ogean (ge=j), where we have the second ja unchanged, and the first primitive ja converted into b. Thus we find for the infinitive fragon (to ask), the forms fragojan or fragogean. We meet sometimes a for the derivative b, as hatan for haton, to hate; giwisadin for giwisodin, instruerent. Fluctuations between the second and first conjugations are not rare; examples are nemnjan, namon, to name; loson, losjan, to loosen, set free; minnjon, minnjan, to love. Verbs of the mixed conjugation as in Old High German.

Anglo-Saxon. As in Old Saxon we meet sometimes a in the singular, and moreover e in the plural of the preterite, for the derivative of. The use of this derivative suffix has further been limited by the encroachments of the suffix ja which has taken possession of the present tense to the exclusion of the forms in  $\delta$ ; hence it happens that the verbs in  $\delta$  have divers forms in common with those in ja, and the two conjugations are no longer kept strictly distinct. The terminations -ige, -igan, -igean, for the infinitive termination jan, and the pres. 1st sing. je, have their origin in the ancient mode of spelling the sound of j by ge, as bryttigean, bryttigan for bryttian= bryttjan, largiri; lufige for tlufje, lufigom; lufigean for lufjan, lufian, to love. There is no doubt that in the spelling of lufigean instead of lufjan, lufian, one thing is superfluous, either the i or the ge, so that in these forms we have perhaps twice the suffix ja. Comp. O. S. ôgean. Transitions from one conjugation into the other we find rather frequently, so that some forms of the verb are derived from a theme of the first, others from a theme of the second conjugation; e.g. leofjan, libban, to live; first pres. leofige or libbe, second leofast, third leofas, plur. libbas; imper. leofa, plur. libba'd; pret. leofode; habban, häbban, to have; first habbe, second hafast, häfst, third hafa'd, häf'd, plur. habba'd, imper hafa, pret häfde. In the same manner hycgan and hogjan, to think; tellan and taljan, to speak, tell; secgan and sagjan, to say; the first-mentioned themes following the first conjugation, the lastmentioned, the second conjugation: different forms of the verb are derived from the one or the other. Mixed Verbs see under Anomalous.

Old Frisian. While in Old Saxon the vowel a but occasionally replaces the thematic of, this change becomes the rule in Old As in Anglo-Saxon we meet the enlarged spelling -igia, -egia for ja; -ige, -ege, -igi for je; skathigia for skathja, w damage, to scathe; ravege for ravje, subjunctive of ravja, to rob. Perhaps these extended themes contain twice the suffix ja as the Old Saxon themes in  $-\delta$ -gea-= $^{+}$ - $\delta$ -ja. Sometimes the first part ig of the suffixed igea is mistaken for a part of the root or stem and therefore treated as such in the formation of the preterite; e.g. nédigia, to urge, oblige, pret. nédigade, part. nédgad. The fluctuation of certain verbs between themes of the first and such of the second conjugation occurs as in the other dialects. Such themes are achtja and echta, to condemn; fullja and fella, to fill; talja and tella, to number (Germ. zælen); rávja and ráva, to rob. 'To live' is represented by the themes libba and levia or livia; hence 3rd sing. lev-a-th, liv-a-th, plur. libbath, subj. libbe, pret. liv-a-de and lif-de. Contractions of the verb hebba, habba, are frequent: 1st sing. hebbe, habbe; and hest, hast; ard heth, hat; plur, hebbath; subj. hebbe, habbe; pret. hede; pret. part. heved, hevd. Mixed verbs as in the other dialects.

Old Norse. The derivative suffix  $\delta$  is, as in Old Frisian, always rendered by a. This a in the preterite plural is changed into u, under the influence, probably, of the u in the preterite suffix. Under these circumstances the derivative u = a causes the Umlaut of the a of the root into  $\ddot{v}$ ; e.g. kull-a, pret. sing. 1st kall-a-8a, pres. plur. 1st köll-u-8um. The connective u of the present 1st plural also causes the Umlaut of a into ö, hence kall-a, plur. köll-u-m. The modus-suffix i of the subjunctive never causes Umlaut. It is peculiar to this class that it comprises verbs which in the present theme have no Umlaut, while the verbs of the first conjugation have Umlaut in the present theme already, or do not modify the vowel at all. Among the former there are a few which have extended the present theme by the addition of j, which spirant has caused Umlaut; e.g. eggja (acuere), emja (ululare). Such verbs keep the j everywhere before the derivative vowel.

There occur in Old Norse, as in the other dialects, verbs which derive their different forms partly from themes of the first, partly from such of the second; e. g. lifu, to live; spara, to spare, save; trua, to trust; pola, to suffer; vaka, to watch, wake; vara, to beware, which form their present after the first conjugation, as

or second conjugation, as lifoa, eparoa, truda, or lif-a-da, truda, truda, or lif-a-da, truda, truda, or lif-a-da, truda, truda, trudadr. hafa, to has in the present first hefi, second hefir, third hefir, plur. höfum, hafid, hafa, pret. hafda.

# VERBS BELONGING TO THE FIRST WEAK CONJUGATION.

Gothic. (1) RADICAL SHORT. aljan, to feed, saginare, alere; raljan, to choose (Germ. wælen), eligere; arjan, to plough, arare; farjan, to sail, navigare; varjan, to defend (Germ. wêren); matjen, to eat (comp. Engl. meat); satjan, to set, ponere; rakjan, to rack, extendere; lagjan, to lay, ponere; hugjan, to think, cogitare; straujan, to strew, spread (Germ. streuen), sternere, pret.

stravida; stójan, to judge, judicare.

(2) RADICAL LONG. valvjan, to turn, volvere; namnjan, to name, nominare; brannjan, to burn, urere; sandjan, to send, mittere; vandjan, to turn (Germ. wenden), vertere; draggkjan, to cause to drink (Germ. tränken), potare, potum præbere; varmjan, to warm, calefacere; andbahtjan, to serve, officiate, ministrare; timejan, to timber, to fabricate, to build; gablindjan, to make blind (Germ. verblenden), occoecare; fulljun, to fill (Germ. füllen), implere; huggrian, to hunger (Germ. hungern), esurire; bugkjan, to seem (Germ. dünken), videri; maurprjan, to murder (Germ. morden), occidere; gavaúrkjan, to work, operari; faúrhtjan, to fear (Germ. fürchten), timere; méljan, to write, scribere; vénjan, to hope, sperare (comp. Germ. wænen); dômjan, to judge, judicare (comp. to deem, doom); dáiljan, to deal (Germ. teilen), partiri; hailjan, to heal (Germ. heilen), sanare; stáinjan, to stone (Germ. steinigen), lapidare; arbáidjan, to work (Germ. arbeiten), laborare; kisauljan, to soil, contaminare; daupjan, to baptize (Germ. taufen); hausjan, to hear (Germ. hören), audire; lausjan, to loosen (Germ. lösen), solvere; skeirjan, to interpret; kúkjan, to kiss, osculari; liuhtjan, to give light (Germ. leuchten), lucere.

Old High German. (1) RADICAL SHORT. queljan, to kill, necare; seljan, to make over, sell, tradere; weljan, to choose (Germ. wælen); denjan, to stretch (Germ. dênen); nerjan, to save, preserve, servare; werjan, to defend (Germ. wêren); strewjan, to strew (Germ. streuen); lekjan, to lay (Germ. legen), ponere; sekjan, to say (Germ. sagen), dicere; spurjan, investigare (Germ. spuren).

(2) RADICAL LONG. stellan, to put (Germ. stellen), collocare; vellan, to fell (Germ. fällen); nennan, to call, to name (Germ. nennen); prennan, to burn (Germ. brennen); rennan, to run;

sendan, to send; senchan, to sink, to lower (Germ. senken), inclinare; werman, to warm (Germ. warmen); accent, to set (Germ. setzen); decchas, to cover (Germ. decken); strecchas, to stretch (Germ. strecken); miltan, misereri; rullan, to fill; antwortes, to answer (Germ. antworten), respondere; kóran, to hear (Germ. hoeren); losan, to loosen (Germ. losen); teilan, to deal (Germ. teilen); heilan, to heal (Germ. heilen); spreitan, to spread (Germ. spreizen); liuktan (Germ. leuchten), lucere; tuoman, to doom.

Old Saxon. (1) RADICAL SHORT. queljan, frumjan, fremjen, efficere; nerjan, werjan, rekjan, to relate; wekjan, to waken.

(2) RADICAL LONG. dópjan, to baptize; lósjan, to lossen; selljan, to sell; telljan, to tell; kebbjan, to have; seggjan, to say; leggian, to lay; sendjan, to send; endjan, to end; lédjan, to lend; grótjan, to greet; cusejan, to kiss; sókjan, to seek; fulljan, to fill; déljan, to deal; fóljan, to feel; dómjan, to doom; quelmjan, to kill; brennjan, to burn; hôrjan, to hear.

Anglo-Saxon. (1) RADICAL SHORT. cucljan, to kill, to quell; seljan, to sell; teljan, to tell: also cwellan, sellan, tellan long; erjan, to ear, to plough, arare; werjan, to prohibit, defend; ner-

jan, to save, preserve; smyrjan, to smear.

(2) RADICAL LONG. cwellan, sellan, tellan; fellan, to fell; nemnan, to name; sendan, to send; drencan, potare; sencan, to sink, mergere; streccan, to stretch; reccan, exponere; weccan, to waken; leccjan, to lay; fyllan, to fill; cyssan, to kiss; dalan, to deal; hælan, to heal; stænan, to stone, lapidare; lædan, to lead; tacan, to teach, pret. tahte; déman, to judge, to deem, to doom; grélan, to greet; mélan, to meet; spédan, to speed; fédan, to feed; sécan, to seek; hŷran, to hear; lŷsan, to loosen, solvere.

Old Frisian. (1) RADICAL SHORT. wera, to defend; era, to car, to plough, arare; bera, to behove, decere; lema, to weaken, debilitare; nera, to save; spera, to investigate, search.

(2) RADICAL LONG. sella, to sell, tradere; selta, to set; thekka, to cover (Germ. decken); strekka, to stretch; tella, to

number; segga and sedza, to say.

Old Norse. (1) RADICAL SHORT. dvelja, to stay, to dwell, morari; qvelja, to torture (Germ. quælen), cruciari; telja, to number; temja, to tame; penja, to stretch (Germ. dênen); yrja, to ear, plough, arare; smyrja, to smear; setja, to set; wekja, to waken; leggja, to lay; hyggja, to think.

(2) RADICAL LONG. mæla, to speak; fella, to fell; fylla, to fill; doema, to judge, doom, deem; dreyma, to dream; brenna, to burn; lara, to teach; leifa, to leave; leida, to lead; foeda, to feed; reisa, to raise, rouse, excitare; girda, to gird; byggja,

to build; fylgja, to follow (Germ. folgen).

# VERBS BELONGING TO THE SECOND AND THIRD CONJUGATIONS.

Gothic. Second Conjugation. piudanon, to reign, regnare; fraujinon, to command; gudjinon, sacerdotio fungi; raginon, to reign, regnare; reikinon, to govern; skalkinon, to serve; salbon, to anoint (Germ. salben), ungere; fiskon, to fish, piscari; vundon, to wound, vulnerare; kaupon, to buy, to cheap (Germ. kaufen), emere; raubon, to rob (Germ. rauben), spoliare; liupon, to sing, canere; frijon, to love.

THIRD CONJUGATION. skaman, to be ashamed (Germ. schæmen), pudere; haban, to have, hold, tenere; hahan, to hang, pendere; pakan, tacere; silan, silere, to be silent; liban, to live; vitan, to observe; gakunnan, to observe; maúrnan, to mourn, moerere; hvôpan, to boast, gloriari; blôtan, deum colere, pret. blôtaida (weak?) or bai-blôt (strong?); aistan, to revere; bauan, to build (Germ. bauen); ga-hveilan, to stay, delay, morari; galeikan, to please; veihan, to sanctify (Germ. weihen); fijan, to hate.

Old High German. SECOND CONJUGATION. halón, to fetch (Germ. hôlen); namón, to name, nominare; manón, to admonish (Germ. månen), monere; scawón, to behold (Germ. schauen), contemplari; ladón, to invite (Germ. låden); scadón, to damage (Germ. schåden); spilón, to play (Germ. spîlen); pëtón, to pray (Germ. bêten); damnón, damnare; danchón, to thank (Germ. danken); hazón, to hate (Germ. haßen); minnón, to love (Germ. minnen); irron, to err (Germ. irren); wuntón, to wound (Germ. ver-wunden); málón, to paint (Germ. målen); steinón, to stone, lapidare; and all derivatives from substantives and adjectives ending in -sam, -al, -il, -ol, -an, -in, -ar, -id, -ód, -ik, -ah, aht.

Third Conjugation. skamén, to blush (Germ. schæmen), erubescere; sparén, to spare (Germ. spâren), parcere; sakén, to say (Germ. sâgen), dicere; lepén, to live (Germ. lêben), vivere; hankén, to hang (Germ. hängen), pendere; hazén, to hate (Germ. haßen), odisse; lahhén, to laugh (Germ. lachen), ridere; lërnén, to learn (Germ. lernen), discere; ar-stummén, to grow dumb or silent, obmutescere (Germ. ver-stummen); vrakén, vrahén, to ask, (Germ. fragen), interrogare; trûrén, to mourn (Germ. trauren), moerere: also derivatives in -al, -an, -an, -ar, &c., though not so frequent as in the second conjugation.

Old Saxon. Second Conjugation. truôn, to trust (Germ. trauen), credere; spilôn, to play; fullôn, to fill; folgôn, to follow (Germ. folgen); manôn, monere (Germ. manen); endôn, to end; hangôn, pendere; érôn, to honour (Germ. êren); ardôn, to dwell; wardôn, to guard; côpôn, to buy; scawôn, to behold

Germ. schanen. contemplare; latón, to hate; bedón, to pray; sriafa, to viait; sucréa, to wake, to watch, vigilare; frágón, to asic: schola. to be stient Germ. schweigen); minneon, to love; production, to behave Germ. ge-barren, gestire; merkjón, signare Germ. merken.

Anglo-Suxon. Second Constraints. telien, to tell, loqui; taires, z. z., echere: analyses, to anoint, ungere; folgjas, to f. L.w. serz: where, monere; waspen, to dwell (Germ. wonen), haccare; enduce, to end. finish; benezien, to thank; drjan, to honor: leavance, to learn; mearchen, to mark, notare; elfpjen, to call, vocare; reigian, to rob; leafjan, lafjan, to love; ebbjan, to ebb. recedere; ninyen, to renew; peónjan, to serve; prónjan, to seffer; Astron, to hate; lodjen, to bode, announce (comp. fore-tode; rigida, visitare; liejan, to please (comp. to like); ployen, to play; placepen, to pluck; logien, to think, meditate. Derivatives in -el, -en, -er, -l, -n, -r, as micljan, magnificare; acyljan, to sail; tácujan, signare; tácen, a token, sign; þegnjan, bénium, to serve; geregnium, gerénium, to adorn; hleódrjam, personare; ruldries, to glorify. Derivatives in -w, -s, -g, e.g. sculujuu, to shade, umbrare; bletojau, bledojau, blesojau, to bless; ricejan, to reign; syngjan, to sin; blódgjan, to bleed (Germ. bluten, sanguinare. Derivatives in -sum: gehyrsumjan, to obey (Germ. gehorchen), obedire.

Old Prisian. Second Constgation. cápja, to buy; makja, to make: halls, to fetch; nomja, to name, call; rárja, to rob; enduja, to end, finish: filess, to follow; áskja, to ask, to demand; kiagja, to complain, to accuse Germ. klagen); radja, to speak Germ. reden; stathja, skathigia, to damage (Germ. schaden, comp. to scathe; rardja, to guard (comp. ward).

Old Norse. Second Conjugation. tala, to speak, tell; kalla, to call; mana, provocare; banna, interdicere; kanna, scrutari; srara, to answer, respondere; rara, to beware; marka, to mark; skapa, to create (comp. to shape); hata, to hate; fasta, to fast; hanta, to hasten; baka, to bake; rita, to write; lika, to please; hrópa, to shout; blóta, to sacrifice (also strong blóta, pret. blét); pióna, to serve (Germ. dienen); hlioda, to sound. Derivatives in -l, -n, -r: as hamla, to impede; sagla, to lock; sofna, to fall asleep; klifra, to ascend. Derivatives in -t, -d, -s: neita, to deny (Germ. ver-neinen), negare; gáta, to assert, affirmare (Germ. be-jâen); hreinsa, to cleanse (Germ. reinigen). Derivatives in -k, -g: as elska, to love; mínka, minuere, to diminish; syndga, to sin. Verbs which insert j before the termination of the infinitive: emja, ululare; synja, to deny, negare; herja, debellare; skepja, ordinare; lifja, sanare; eggja, acuere.

# THE WEAK CONJUGATION IN THE MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

# English.

It will be well to remind the student that the verbs of the weak conjugation form their preterite and past participle by means of a suffix, while those of the strong conjugation attain the same end by means of the Ablaut, the modification of the Verbs of the former class are derivative, those of the latter primitive, or stem verbs. The derivative suffix of the weak verbs is aya, which in Gothic appears as i, ai, and  $\delta$ , vowels which enter as connectives between the root and the terminations, and according to which we distinguish three weak conjugations. The suffix of the preterite is did, the preterite of the verb to do, which is added to the connective. The personal terminations are the same as in the strong conjugations. In the Middle and New Teutonic dialects the connective is weakened to e, and of the suffix did nothing is left but the consonant d, followed by the personal terminations; hence the weak preterite ends in English, for example, in ed, in German in et-e (German = English d, see the phonetic laws). Compare pp. 2, 366, 382, 388, 389, 477 (foot-note).

In late Saxon already the two conjugations are mixed up, because the connective o is commonly weakened to e, and thus becomes identical with that of the first conjugation. Though Layamon still has makode by the side of makede, and Old English ascode, robbode, and even the Romance word destruiode, these forms are nevertheless exceptional; even Layamon has e for both conjugations, and the writer of the Ormulum rejects the connective o altogether. We therefore distinguish no longer different conjugations characterized by the thematic, or connective, vowel, but arrange all verbs in two classes, those with a short, and

others with a long radical.

I. RADICAL SHORT. The connective e is retained in the preterite and participle, its short character is clearly indicated by the spelling -edd in the Ormulum; e.g. sweuen (to sleep), pret. sweue-e-de, part. i-sweu-ed<sup>1</sup>; pankien (to thank), pank-e-de, ipank-ed.

<sup>1</sup> i., or y-, the early English form of the Anglo-Saxon augment ge-, German ge-, Old High German ga-. The ancient dialects admitted the augment in the past participle; modern German requires it, and modern English has dropped it altogether.

Old English uses -e-d, or -i-d in the preterite and participle, se end-i-d, command-i-d, and end-e-d, command-e-d. Middle English has the same terminations: e.g. thanke, pret. thank-e-de, thanki-de, part. thank-e-d, thank-i-d, and New English confines itself to -e-d for the preterite and participle, as thank, thank-e-d, thanke-d, where e is the thematic or connective vowel and represents the primitive suffix ya; the d of the preterite stands for the suffixed auxiliary verb 'did', and the d of the participle is the remnant of the participial suffix -da-, Greek and Latin -to-. The termination -ed however has nowhere preserved full pronunciation except where following upon a dental of the stem, as guarded, reward-ed, wett-ed; in every other position the e, though preserved in writing is dropped in pronunciation, and loved, praised, are pronounced as lov'd, prais'd. Though such forms with syncope occur in Old English and Middle English documents, the interchange between e and i seems to prove that it was not the rule then to slur over the vowel of the termination. Modern poets leave or drop the e, often merely guided by reasons of metrical conveniance or euphonic predilections1. There are a few phonetic changes in New English brought about by the addition of the termination -ed which deserve a passing notice. Single y before -ed is changed into i; a verb with a short vowel and simple consonant doubles the latter; e.g. carry, carried, but convey, conveyed; beg, begg-ed, wet, wett-ed, wed, wedd-ed. The ed of the termination is changed into t after verbs with final gemination or any combination of consonants, e.g. smell, smell, spill, spilt; past, burnt, are obsolete. Formerly the change also occurred upon p and k, as whipt, dropt, knockt, which are still pronounced in this fashion though spelled whipped, &c.

II. Radical long. (1) The preferite and participle suffix -d is added immediately to the stem of the verb, as Layamon, demen, dem-de, idem-ed; lenen, len-de, ilen-ed, to lean; læden, læd-de, ledd; fedenn, fed-de, fedd. Ormulum. demenn, demenn, demm-de², dem-edd; ræfenn, ræf-de, bi-ræf-ed, to rob; ledenn, led-de, ledd, to lead; fedenn, fed-de, fedd, to feed. Old English. dele, delde, deled; deme, demde; fede, fedde, fed. Middle English. here, herde, herd, to hear; fede, fedde, fed; drede, dredde, drad,

to dread.

(2) Where the suffixed d follows upon ld, nd (dd), the d of the combination is dropped; after the tenuis t the suffixed d is lost.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For some interesting details concerning the use of the termination -ed in Spenser and Shakespeare, see Koch, i. p. 309.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The spelling in the Ormulum shows that the radical becomes short in the preterite.

Examples: — Layamon. senden, sende, isend; wenden, wende, fesent and iwend; resten, reste, iræste; casten, cast, icast. Ormulum. senndenn, sennde, sennd; reddenn, redde, redd (to save); setten, sette, sett. In verbs of this class Layamon often replaces d by t, as wenden, went, iwent. Old English. bulde, bulde (to build); bende, bende; sende, sende and send, send, send; caste, caste, cast; sette, sette, yset. The change of d into t becomes more frequent, chiefly among northern writers, e. g. sende, sent; wende, went, mende, ment, &c. Middle English regularly converts the d into t; e. g. blende, blent, blent, blent; sende, sente, sent; wende, wente, went; schende, schente, schent. The suffix d is dropped altogether after a combination of consonants with the tenuis t, e. g. casten, caste, cast; renten, rent, yrent; resten, reste, reste.

(3) The suffix -d is changed into -t after p, ch, cch, ss, and t; ck must then become h, nch becomes ng, or is vocalized. E.g. Layamon. drenchen, pret. drengte and dreinte (to water); tæchen, takhte, takht; kepen, kepte, kept. Ormulum. kepenn, keppte, keppt; lacchenn, lakhte? lakht (to seize). Old English. kepen, kepte, kept; meten, mette; lefen, left (to leave); cache, cazte, cazt (to catch). Middle English. kepen, kepte and kepide, kepte and kept; lene, leeve, pret. lefte and laft, part. left and laft; greten, grette, gret; pliechen, plight, plight (to pluck); quenchen, queinte,

queinte ; drenchen, dreint, dreint.

(4) Rück-Umlaut occurs throughout all the periods of the English language, though it is no longer felt as such, and might be mistaken for Ablaut. Examples:—Layamon. sechen, isohte, isoht; tellen, talde, itald and itold; seollen, sælde and solde, isælde. Ormulum. sekenn, sohhte, sohht; tæchenn, tahhte, tahht; tellen, talde, tald. Old English. seche, sozte, sozt; teche, taght and tauht; telle, tolde and tald; selle, solde, sold. Middle English. telle, tolde, told; selle, soold and selde, solde and seeld; seche, sought, ysought; biggen, bouzte, bouzte; teche, touzte, touzt and taust. New English. tell, told, told; seek, sought, sought; teach, taught, taught; reach, raught, raught; catch, caught, caught; buy, bought, bought. There are a few peculiarities in Modern English in the treatment of the suffixed d which deserve a separate notice. (a) The d remains and the radical is shortened, as in hear, hear-d, hear-d, flee, fle-d, fle-d. (b) The suffixed d is dropped after a d (t) of the stem, and the radical, if long, is shortened; e. g. lead, led, led; read, read; speed, sped, sped; feed, fed, fed; spread, spread, spread. (c) t has replaced d, probably for the sake of indicating the short radical in feel, felt, felt; deal, dealt, dealt; also after gemination and certain combinations of liquids, as smell, smelt; spell, spelt and spelled; burn, burnt and burned; learn, learnt and learned.

(d) We find t and d side by side, e. g. mean, meant and meaned, meant and meaned; dream, dreamt and dreamed, dreamt and dreamed.

(e) t has replaced d after p, f, s, and the radical is shortened, e. g. sleep, slept, slept; creep, crept, crept; weep, wept, wept; cleave, cleft, cleft.

(f) Verbs ending with ld, nd, rd, change the d into t in the preterite and participle without adding the suffix, e. g. build, built, built; blend, blent, blent; gild, gilt, gilt.

(g) The preterite suffix is simply dropped after d, t, and the combinations st, rt, ft, the present, preterite, and participle being thus identical in form; e. g. to put, to set, to rid, to spread. Some of these have regular forms, as quit, quitted; to light and to alight have lighted and lit, alighted and alit.

# Middle High German.

The thematic vowel has become e throughout, taking the place of the different forms of the derivative suffix, O. H. Germ. i (ja) in the first,  $\delta$  in the second, and  $\dot{\epsilon}$  in the third conjugation. The only distinction we might draw between the first and second conjugation is this, that in the former the derivative e is commonly dropped, and almost as regularly preserved in the latter; it being in one case the representative of the thin vowel i, in the other of the full-sounding ô. The derivative or connective vowels  $\dot{o}$  and  $\dot{e}$  (of the second and third conjugation) appear only in few isolated cases, as volgôt, manôt, &c., chiefly in the participle. But here again so many exceptions occur, where the derivative e is dropped also, that the two conjugations continually meet on common ground, and that therefore a distinction of several weak conjugations is no longer practically advisable. From the standpoint of historical grammar, however, some advantage may result from the endeavour to keep still separate the two conjugations in Middle High German, until in New High German they have with few exceptions lost all the characteristic features of former days, all weak verbs following the same conjugation.

Both the first and the second conjugation contain verbs with a short, and verbs with a long radical. To distinguish the short verbs of the first from those of the second, we have to bear in mind that short verbs of the first conjugation necessarily have Umlaut in the present theme, while those of the second are devoid of it. (Exceptions occur, as in hern, herte.) The long verbs have several characteristics of their own, by means of which

the student may know the verbs of the first from those of the second conjugation. Those of the first conjugation are commonly intransitive in meaning; they have Umlaut in the present, and Rück-Umlaut in the preterite, where such is possible; hence in the present only the vowels e, ü, æ, oe, iu, ue, may occur, but in the preterite a, u, d, d, u, uo—that is, vowels which from the modified return to their original form—a phenomenon we call **Rück-Umlaut:** they suffer syncope of the derivative e in the preterite. Long verbs of the second conjugation follow in everything the opposite course; the meaning attached to them is commonly intransive; they have neither Umlaut nor Rück-Umlaut; they do not suffer syncope in the preterite. Useful as these rules may be in a general way, they admit so many exceptions as to be no sufficiently safe guides in certain cases, and the student will often have to recur to Old High German in order to determine the conjugation to which a given verb in Middle High German originally belonged.

Verbs of the first conjugation were originally short, as queln (to torture), nern (to save, preserve), ern (to plough, arare), legen (to lay), zeln (to count); but many of this class have adopted inorganic gemination and are therefore treated as long verbs, though they are no longer traceable, as in Old High German, to the assimilated j of the suffix; e.g. zellen, zalte, twellen, twalte, the short forms of which are zeln, tweln, not zeljen, tweljen. One verb only occurs with the suffix j, namely werjen for wern (the M. H. Germ. j almost identical with g). These verbs always allow the syncope of e in the preterite, as ner-te, leg-te, for nerete, legete, and in the present necessarily after l and r, and usually after m, n, t, b, g. The vowel of the root is e or ü which never

makes Rück-Umlaut in the preterite.

Verbs of the first conjugation which have a long radical reject the e = i in the preterite and have Rück-Umlaut. In this respect they not only follow the analogy of Old High German, but go beyond it by admitting Rück-Umlaut of iu into u, though the former is organic, not the Umlaut of i. A dental preceding the t of the preterite suffix is usually dropped; every gemination is, under the same circumstance, resolved to the simple consonant, and a media converted into the corresponding tenuis; e and e0 preceding the e1 of the preterite are sometimes preserved, sometimes changed into e1. Examples to these rules are:—brenn-en (to burn), bran-te; send-en (to send), san-te; engen (to narrow), ancte; decken (to cover), dacte and dahte; suochen, suochte and suohte. There are some exceptions with regard to the Umlaut which may be noticed here. The Umlaut is rejected

by all verbs of this class which end in -uld, -ung, the verbs in -ou, and some in -uo; the Rück-Umlaut is not adopted by those in -elt, -ert, -ert, -ert, -ert, -ert. Only those verbs which have no Rück-Umlaut in the indicative of the preterite, take Umlaut in the subjunctive. Though the vowel of the derivative suffix (e=i=ja) suffers syncope in the preterite, it may keep its place in the participle of the preterite; e.g. brennen, pret. bran-te, part ge-bran-t, and ge-brennet; erkennen, pret. erkant, part. erkant and erkennet.

Verbs of the second conjugation drop the n or en (=0. H. Germ. on) in the sing. pres., e.g. lebe for leben, dol for dolen. The e mute (that is, e following upon a short radical and a single consonant) is always dropped after l and r, in which case the second and first conjugation become identical; but e preceded by m or n and followed by n or nt keeps its position; e.g. zal, zalte, hol, holte, spar, sparte, zaln, holn, sparn; but manen, manent, wonen, wonent. After b, d, g, the e may be retained, as lobe, lobete, rarely lobte. Where syncope takes place the t of the termination sometimes absorbs a preceding dental, as schat for schad-et, reist for redest, gereit for geredet. A lengthening of the radical by contraction of the radical and the terminational syllables, as in the preceding example, we find also in seist, geseit for sagest, gesaget. Verbs with a long radical preserve the thematic or derivative e in the present, as male, malest, minne, minnet; they also keep it in the preterite, but the e of the suffix as termination, te, test, &c., becomes often mute, as minnet, rinnet for minnete, rinnete; sometimes the derivative e is dropped, as êrle for êrete; but more often the full form is preserved, as mâlete, dankete, minnete, &c.

# New High German.

The distinction of the different conjugations is lost altogether, with the exception of a few traces of the ancient types. Thus we still find the preterites kannte, nannte, brannte, sandte, wandte, which we noticed as peculiar to verbs with long radical in the first conjugation; but by the side of these we have nennte, brennte, sendete, wendete (not kennte); then again the inorganic forms rannte, trannte, which should always be replaced by rennte, trennte. The preterites with Rück-Umlaut resume their e in the subjunctive, hence kennte, nennte, sendete, not kännte, &c. The d in sandte, wandte was introduced at a time when the ancient forms sante, &c., were no longer understood. With the general production of vowels in New High German the

short radical has everywhere turned long. The preterite of weak verbs suffers syncope, to whatever conjugation they may have belonged; as næren, nærte, légen, légte, salben, salbte, minnen, minnte: but if the t of the preterite is preceded by a dental the e must necessarily be retained; hence, waten, watete, hueten, huetete, reden, redete, retten, rettete, tödten, tödtete. The preterite of the weak conjugation has never Umlaut, hence wâtete, bâdete, tôbte, raufte; while verbs of the strong conjugation take Umlaut, as hülfe, würde, gæbe, göße, subj. of half (plur. halfen for hulfen), wurde, gab, goß. Derivatives in -el, -em, -en, -er, -ig, suffer syncope, so that those in -el, -er, drop the thematic or connective e; e.g. sickeln, wundern, sichelle, wunderte: sichlen, wundren, is wrong. But those in em, en, drop the e of the nominal, and preserve that of the verbal theme; e. g. áthem (breath), áthmen (to breathe); rêgen (rain), rêgnen (to rain); áthmete, régnete in the preterite.

### Middle Dutch.

The characteristic features of the different conjugations are more effaced than in Middle High German, both admitting the syncope of the e in the preterite, and the first having lost the consciousness of its Umlaut and the use of Rück-Umlaut. As a practical guide we may follow Grimm's rule, that most verbs with the radical e (that is, Umlaut) belong to the first, and those with the radical a to the second conjugation. It is a peculiarity of the Middle Dutch to turn the radical a, followed by a single consonant, into ae before the termination of the preterite; e.g. maken, maecte, wanen, waende. Before the termination d the consonants v and gh become f and ch, as scraven, scrafde, vraghen, vræchde, sorghen, sorchde; but minghen, mincte. The terminational d, on the other hand, must be changed into t after the tenues p, t, c, and s (from ss); e.g. drópen, drópte, vágen, væcte, haten, hatte, cussen, custe.

# New Dutch.

The derivative or connective e, is dropped throughout, even in those words which in Middle Dutch still had ede as the preterite termination. The use of de or te is continued in accordance with the nature of the preceding consonant; -de is put in most cases, -te after p, t, k, f (from ff), ck, s (from ss); f and s take the suffix -de if they are derived, the former from v, the latter from z. Every gemination is dissolved into the single consonant.

Examples:—hóren, hórde¹; beminnen, beminde; ståren¹, stårde; léven, léfde¹; drukken, drukte; schaffen, schafte; hópen, hópte; beslissen, besliste. Contractions are leit for legt (ponit), leide for legde (posnit), zeit (dicit), zeide for zegde (dixit); kópen has kocht = koft, for kópte². Derivatives in -el, -em, -en, -er, -ig, drop the thematic or derivative e in the preterite; e.g. sneuvelen, regenen, wonderen, pret. sneuvelde, regende, wonderde. Compare Germ. regnete; but also wunderte.

### Swedish.

The distinction of the first and second conjugation is still very accurate, the former conjugation showing je, ja in the present, and de (=e-de) in the preterite, the latter the connective a in the present, and the termination -a-de (O. N. -a-da = Goth. -6-da) in the preterite. The first conjugation always drops the thematic or connective vowel e before the termination of the preterite; as täljer, tálde, bränner, brände. The j of följa, följde, forja, forjde, has its origin in an original g of the stem, and has nothing to do with the derivative ja. The regular termination of the preterite is -de, but after p, t, k, it uses te; gemination is always dissolved, as branna, brande. Those which originally had the radical short, have often preserved the thematic j and the Rück-Umlaut in the preterite; e. g. tælja, tálde; doelja, dólde; tæmja, támde; spoeria, spórde. Verbs which originally had a long radical have neither the j in the present, nor the Rück-Umlaut in the preterite; e.g. bränna, brände; fyla, fylde; droema, droemde. On comparison with the Old Teutonic dialects it will be seen that this rule is in accordance with the one observed in Old Norse, but just the opposite of that followed in Old High German and other dialects. Though the characteristic forms of the second conjugation are preserved, the spirit of the language tends more and more to assimilate them to those of the first conjugation, first by allowing the syncope of the derivative a in the preterite, as nekte for nekade, talte for talade, and then by weakening the present termination ar into er, as neker for nekar, tiener for tienar. Very few verbs, on the contrary, have passed from the first into the second conjugation; as dela, delade; boerja, boerjade.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Spelt hoorde, stuurde, leefde, &c., to keep the length of the vowel before two consonants.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The spirant f instead of the tenuis p before another tenuis; the use of ch for f, a peculiarity of the Dutch language. See p. 163.

### Danish.

This dialect has nothing of the ancient distinction of the two conjugations left, but the syncope of the e in the preterite termination -e-de in the first, and its preservation in the -e-de = -a-de of the second conjugation. The termination de of the first conjugation is preserved only after vowels, and a simple b, v, g; it is changed to -te in all other cases, especially after dentals and the spirant s; e.g. valgte, strakte, tänkte, viste, which modern writers, contrary to grammatical tradition, sometimes spell valgde, strakde, tänkde, visde. The original verbs with short vowel may still be recognized in the gemination, as tälle, skille, smörre, räkke, for O. N. telja, skilja, smyrja, rekja; or in the media g into which the j of the derivative ja was hardened, as välge, dölge, for O. N. velja, dylja. Rück-Umlaut also we still find in the preterite of some verbs of this class, e g. talte, rakte, smarte of tälle, smölle, räkke. Those verbs which originally had a long radical reject gemination, the hardening of j into g, and the Rück-Umlaut; only few exceptions to this rule occur. The second weak conjugation takes always -ede in the preterite. Derivatives in l, m, n, r, dismiss the e of the nominal theme, as samle, tumle, roedme, elske. The connective e of the pretcrite is sometimes dropped, as in elskte for elskede. The d of the preterite termination is changed into t under the same circumstances as in Swedish.

### ANOMALOUS VERBS.

Under this head we range all those verbs which in their inflexional forms show certain peculiarities so as to require separate treatment as a class of their own. We avoid the term irregular, for it is high time that this designation, which cannot but convey erroneous notions, should disappear from the terminology of grammarians. There is nothing irregular in these verbs, and nothing irregular in language generally. Every phenomenon is founded upon a law; it is not the product of hap-hazard or of an arbitrary will. Where the law has not yet been discovered, it remains the noblest task of linguists to strive after its discovery and elucidation. What as yet evades explanation may be left standing over as a fact which is sure to find some day sufficient illustration from other corollary facts grouped around. But we must do away once and for all with notions of irregularity, and therefore drop the term which keeps such notions

alive. The verbs which we arrange under the head of Anomalous (a term, if not much differing in meaning from that of 'irregular,' is at least not fraught with preconceived ideas) may be divided into two classes. One comprises all those verbs which form the present theme by adding the personal terminations directly, without a connective vowel, to the root—a class which may have mustered many verbe in the most primitive times; which however in our Teutonic languages, ancient and modern, is reduced to a few isolated forms, most verbs forming the present theme with the suffix -a (strong), or with the suffix -ya (weak). The other class embraces verbs which use the perfect theme to supply the meaning of the present, and, in order to render the meaning of the participle, form a new out of the ancient perfect by adding to it the suffix -da of the weak preterite. These are commonly designated by grammarians as Presterito-Presentia, a term which, for the sake of convenience, we adopt.

### VERBS WITHOUT A CONNECTIVE OR THEMATIC VOWEL

There are only few roots in the Teutonic languages which may take the personal terminations without a connecting suffix, binding the root and termination together. As we mentioned on a former occasion, these roots are da, prim. dha (to do), ga (to go), sta (to stand), and as (to be); to which may be added in the Teutonic languages bu, prim. bhu (to be), though in Sanskrit it forms the present theme in -a. This formation we find in its most perfect state in Old High German, while in Gothic it is limited to the root as, and in the other Teutonic dialects shows few traces besides the present themes of the roots as and da. But even in Old High German this formation does not pass beyond the present theme, the perfect being derived from a root and theme of its own. Concerning the manner in which the terminations of the persons are joined to the root we need not enter into further details after the remarks we had occasion to make in previous chapters. As to the root itself we find it quite intact in the O. H. Germ. gá-m, stá-m, tuo-m, where the primitive gradation is preserved but the reduplication has been dropped, prim. ga-gá-mi, sta-stá-mi, dha-dhá-mi. It is altogether different with the roots as and bu, which have been greatly modified under the addition of the personal termination so as to be sometimes hardly recognizable. Thus the prim. 1st sing. as-mi appears as the Gothic i-m for tis-mi, the prim. 3rd plur. as-anti, as the Goth. s-ind, where nothing is retained of the root but its

Similar modifications of the root as occur in the other Teutonic dialects. The root bu, prim. bhu, takes the terminations without a connective in several of the Teutonic languages, while in Sanskrit and in the primitive language it forms the theme in -a, and gradates the root from bhu to bhau, changing under the influence of a succeeding vowel the final u in v; hence the pres. tense bhav-a-mi. The gradated condition of the root may perhaps still be recognized in the O. S. biu-, the A. S. beo, while the O. H. Germ. pi- is a weakened form of pu=prim. bhu. Whether the r in the plur. pi-r-u-mes took the place of w in pi-w-u-mes and would thus correspond to the v in the prim. bha-v-d-masi, or represents the s of the ancient formation of the perfect1, is a question unsettled as yet. Further details about the modifications of the mentioned roots in the different Teutonic dialects may be gathered from the paradigms as well as the remarks following upon them. For the sake of comparison we give the different roots with their inflexions as they appear in the primitive language, before we lay before the student the paradigms in the different Teutonic dialects.

I.	II.	III.
Root dha, to do.	Root ga, to go.	Root sta, to stand.
Sing. 1st dha-dhâ-mi	ga <b>-g</b> â-m <b>i</b>	sta-stâ-mi
2nd dha-dha-si	ga-ga <b>-si</b>	sta-sta-si
3rd dha-dha-ti	ga <b>-</b> ga-t <b>i</b>	sta-sta-ti
Plur. 1st dha-dhâ-masi	ga-gâ-masi	sta-stâ-masi
2nd dha-dha-tasi	gu-ga-tasi	sta-sta-lasi
3rd dha-dha-nti	ga-ga-nti	sta-sta-nti

IV.	V.
Root as, to be.	Root bhu, to be
Sing. 1st as-mi	bhar-â-mi
2nd as-si	bhar-a-si
3rd as-ti	bhuv-a-ti
Plur. 1st as-masi	bhav-â-ma <b>si</b>
2nd as-tasi	bhav-a-tasi
3rd as-anti	bhav-a-nti

The paradigms of the Teutonic languages follow in the same order; but the roots as and bu must be treated conjointly, because in different Teutonic dialects some forms of the present are derived from the root as, others from the root bu. The preterite is formed with a different root altogether, namely vas, which is

<sup>1</sup> About the perfect in -s-, see p. 401.

the preterite of the verb visan (manere). Though it has nothing in common with the roots now under discussion, we nevertheless introduce it into the paradigm, in order to give the verb 'to be' complete.

Root da, ta.

Present and Preterite Indicative.

O. H. G.	' <b>М</b> . Н. G.	N. H. G.	Old Sex.	ASax.	Lay.	Orm.	O. E.	M. E.	N. Eag.
tuo-m tuo-e	tuo-n tuo-st	tū(c) t <del>ū-st</del>	dô-m dô-s	dô-m dê-st	do de-st (do-st)	do do-(s)st	do(e) de-st (do-s)	do(e) dost (doost) (doist)	do do-st (do-est
two-t	tuo-t	tú-t	đỏ-đ	dē-5	de-5 (do-5)	do-v	de-þ (do-s)	do-th (does)	do-th (do-es
tuo-más	tuo-n	(d-n	d6-d (dw-a-d)	dô-5	dò-5	do- <b>n</b>	dò-þ	do-n (do-en) (do-ith)	do
tuo-t tuo-nt	tuo-t tuo-nt	tú-t tú-n	dó-d dó-d	dô-ð dô-ð	do-5	do-n do-n	do-þ do-þ		::
tēla tāti	tële tate	tåt tåt <del>-st</del>	dēda dēdôs (dâdi)	dide didest	die die	de d <b>est</b>	di di	de de <b>s</b>	did did#
t <b>ēta</b> tātu-mês	tëte :	tåt tålen	dëda dëdun	dide didon	du di	de den	di di		did did
			(dådun)	(dedon)		dide)	""	ue	
tát-ut	tätet	tátet	dedun	did n		••		••	
tát-u-n	täten	täten	dëdun	dido <b>n</b>	! .				١.

# PRESENT AND PRETERITE SUBJUNCTIVE.

O. H. G.	M. H.G.	N. H. G.	Old Sax.	ASax.	Orm. Lay.	O. E. M. E.	N. E
tuo-r	tuo	tue	dua	d8	do(e)	do	ďο
tuo-ês	' tuost	tüest	dua	đô	do(e)	do	do
tuo-e	tuo	tue	dua	đΰ	do(e)	do	do
tuo-ê-mês	tuon	tûen	du-an	dó-n	do(en)	don	do
tuo-ê-t	tuot	tüct	du-an		\ \ \ \		٠
tuo-ĉ-n	tuon	tûen	du-an	••		••	٠٠.
tát-i	tate	tate	dëdi (didi)	dide	dide	dide	did
tát-i-s	tætest	tætc	dëdis (dådis)	dide	dide	dide	
tat-i	late	tæte	dëdi (dåd <b>i</b> )	dide	dide	dide	
tát-í-mês	tæten	taten	dèdin (dâdin)	diden	dide(n)	dide	
tat-i-t	tertet	tæten	` ′			••	
tát-i-n	tæten	terten	1	••	1		١

# THE VERB 'TO BE.'

# Roots as, bû, vas.

# PRESENT INDICATIVE.

Gothic.	Old H	igh German.	Old Sax		Anglo-S	ezon.	0.	Pris.	OM N	-
86.	88.	ъâ.	88.	ъâ.	88.	bâ.	8.0.	ъâ.	84.	14
i-m i-e io-i	ie, ie-s	pi-m pi-s(st)	is, is t	biu-m bi-st	is	beo-(m) bi-st bi-t	io-t	bo-m bi-st	om er-i er	••
sij-u-m		pi-r-u-mes pi-r-u-m pi-r-m	o-ind	••	{ar-on    s-ind(-on)	beo-t	- and	••	67-14 M	• ••
sij-u-}		{pi-r-t} {pi-r-t}	s-ind	••	{ar-on s-ind(-on)}	beo-6	o-md		<del></del> 5	
e-ind	o-ind	p <del>i-ru-n</del>	s-ind(-un)		{ar-on } {s-ind(-on)}		o-end		er-s	••

# PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

Gothic.	O. H.G.	Old	Saxon.	A	nglo-S	axon.	O. Fris.	Old I	Norse.
88.	88.	88.	V88.	88.	ъû.	Vas.	88.	8.5.	Vas.
si-jau	8-6	8-6	••	8-î	beo	wës-6	8-8	8-ô	rer-i
કાં)-તાં-ક	8-î-8	8- <b>î-8</b>	• •	8-6	beo	wĕs-c	a-ê	8-ê-r	rer-i-r
sij-ai	8- <b>î</b>	8-6	(wësa)	<b>8</b> −6	beo	<b>10ĕs-</b> €	8-6	8-ê	ver-i
sij-ai-ma	ક-i-mês	8-î-n	••	8-6-n	beo-n	wës-e-n	a-8	s-ĉi-m	ver-i-m
sij-ai-þ	8-1-t	8-6-M	• •	8-î-n	beo-n	10 <del>88-6-11</del>	8-8	8-êi-þ	ver-i-þ
sij-ai-na	8-i-n	8- <b>î-n</b>	••	8-1-n	beo-n	10čs-c-n	8-8	s-ĉi	ver-i

# IMPERATIVE.

О. Н	. Germ.	Anglo-S	azon.	O. Fris.	O. Norse.
bû.	Vas.	Vas.	ъû.	V88.	Vas.
Sing. 2nd pi-s Plur. 2nd (si-t)	wis wës-al	wes wës-a-b	beo-K	wes-e wes-a-th	ver-i-ti

# Root vas.

# PRETERITE INDICATIVE.

		Gothic.	O. H. Germ.	Old Sax.	AngSax.	O. Fris.	O. Norse.
Sing.	1st 2nd 3rd	vas vas-t vas	was wār-i was	was wār-i was	wäs wære wäs	was wêre was	var var-t
Plur.	ıst	vês- <b>u</b> -m	wār-u-mēs	wâr-un	wær-on	wêr-on	{vâr-u-m}
	2nd	vês-u-)	wâr-u-t	wâr-un	wær-on	wêr-on	{var-u-t
	3rd	vés-u-n	wār-u-n	wār-un	wær-on	wêr-on	{vâr-u (vor-u)

# PRETERITE SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing.	ıst	vês-ja-u	wâr-i	wâr-i	wær-e	wêr-e	vær-i
	2nd	vês-ci-s	wâr-î-s	wâr-i-e	wær-e	wêr-e	vær-i-r
	3rd	vês-i	wâr-i	wâr-i	wær-e	wêr-e	vær-i
Plur.	ıst	vês-ci-ma	wâr-î-mês	wâr-î-n	wær-e-n	wêr-e	vær-i-m
	2nd	vês-ei-þ	wâr-î-t	wâr-î-n	wær-e-n	wêr-e	vær-i-ð
	રrd	vês-ei-na	wâr-i-n	wâr-î-n	wær-e-n	wêr-e	por-i

# Infinitive.

wës-an			wes-a	ver-a
sî-n	l	beo-n	ł	•

# PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

vis-a-nd-s | wes-â-nt-êr | .. | wes-e-nd-e | wes-a-nd | ver-a-nd-i

# PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.

vis-a-n-s | wes-a-n-ŝr | wës-a-n | ge-wesen | wesen | ver-i-nn.

# MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

PRESENT INDICATIVE.

	Layamon.	Crmulum.	Ormulum. Old English. Mid. Engl. N. Engl. M. H. Ger. N. H. G. M. Dutch. N. Dutch. Swedish. Dunish	Mid. Engl.	N. Kingi	M. H. Ger.	N.H.G.	M. Datch.	N. Datch.	Swedlah.	
aio	Sing. 1st am, am	amm	a m	am	•	din din	ž		.5	ŧ	b
	and art, art, eart	arra.	art, ert		£	bis	Dist.	3	:	ŧ	Ł
	2rd 66	je je Jest	3 3		-5	ż	3	.5	.3	ŧ	ŧ
	beot, bet, bit	beol, beb	se s		1	1	1	; [	1	ì	: 
÷	Plur. 1st sunden	sinnden	are, ere, er	9	ğ	4	şi Ç	4	ŧ	(B76(e)	Ĕ
	beot, bet, bis	ırı, deb, ben	beh, ben, be			Ę			bennen		
	puz	:	:		:	#.}	Ť	콕	¥Į	8	£
	3rd	:	:	:	:	1	sind	4		2	£
				Present	Present Subjunctive.	OTIVE.					
àio	Sing. 1st beo	beo, be	28	.8	.8	*	*	*	*	202	
		<b>:</b> :	:	;	:	į	į	3	•		
		:	:	:	:	*	ĭ	*	ï		
Plur.	1st been	beon 1	సి	3	z	ŧ	Seja.	ŧ	ŧ	200	
						;	1	ş	1	;	
	and	::	::	::	::	ŧŧ	-  -	ŧŧ	1		

::											være		varende		oæret
rôren rôro		rôre	:	·. vôre	tôren	rore		. par	3 sing. vare varen 1 pl. varom	•	vara		varande varende		vartt
waren		ware		wâren	wäret	wâren		wès	wêst, zît	•	vêzen, zîn		vesende stnde	•	gewêst
vâren		wâre(?)		wâren		_		wis(?) pis(;)	(2) 79.0	-	waem, sin wêzen, zin		wesende(?)	-	gewesen gewêst gesin
warer		wære	werest	weren	waret	weren		.£	sci(e)t	•	scin		seiend		geroeen
waret	Subjunctive.	wære		waren		_		Pie Pie	est (i)	• •	be wesen, sin	CIPLE.	being   wesonde(?)  selond   wesonde(?)  wesonde	ICIPLE.	ge-wesen ge-sin
::	E SUBJU	were	:	vere	:	:	Imperative.	ş	ş	Infinitive.	2	Present Participle.	being	TE PART	been
::	Preterite	were	:	 were	:	:	IMI	.8	beath, beth	INI	ben, be	Present	beende	PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.	pen
::		were	:	:. were	:	:		.2	beb, bes		ben, bin beo, be		:		bene bien
::		wære	•	wæren	:	•		beo, be	ф		beon, ben		:		beon ben ibe
::		were	: :	weren	:	:		beo, be	peop eo		peon		:		speo beon
3rd		Sing. 1st	2 nd 2 rd	Plur. 18t	puz 1	3rd		Sing. 2nd	Plur. 2nd						

### REMARKS ON THE PARADIGMS.

The root da (to do); O. H. Germ. ta; Prim. dha.

Gothic. This root never appears except in the preterite terminations of the weak conjugation, considered above, and in the

noun deds (deed).

Old High German. The diphthongal form of the present corresponds to the second gradation dha of the Sanskrit and Primitive; the preterite tēta is one of the few traces of complete reduplication in Old High German, and stands for a more ancient tita=tata. The lengthened form in 2nd sing. tāti is the contraction of 'ta-ta-ti (-ti is personal termination), prim. dhadha-ti; and in the same manner the plural tāt-u-mēs=ta-ta-mēs, prim. dha-dhā-masi. A conjugation somewhat differing from that in the paradigm we find in Otfried's dua-n, dua-s (dui-s), dua-t (dni-t); 1st plur. duen, 3rd duant, duent.

Old Saxon. The  $\delta$  corresponds to the second gradation uo in Old High German,  $\tilde{a}$  in Sanskrit and Primitive. The short forms du-a-d by the side of  $d\delta-d$  in the plural of the present, and the lengthened radical in  $d\delta di$ ,  $d\delta dun$  by the side of  $d\tilde{c}dos$ ,  $d\tilde{c}dun$  in the preterite, indicate a tendency to leave the ancient mode of conjugating this verb and to assimilate it to that of the verbs

in a.

**Anglo-Saxon** admits Umlaut of  $\delta$  into  $\epsilon'$  in the 2nd and 3rd sing, present. The plur,  $d\epsilon d - u - n$  by the side of did - o - n corresponds to the O. S.  $d\epsilon d - u - n$  by the side of  $d\epsilon d - u - n$ , the O. H. Germ.  $t\epsilon d - u - m\epsilon s$ .

Old Frisian has the principal forms of this verb left: pres. 1st due, 3rd de'-th, plur. du-a-th; subj. du-e, pret. dede, plur. dedon; pret. part. de'-n, da'-n. The forms will show of themselves how they approach certain peculiarities in the preceding dialects.

Old Norse has as little as Gothic any of the verbal forms of the root da.

The roots ga (to go); O. H. Germ. gá, ká. sta (to stand).

Gothic possesses this root in its extended form gaggan, but never makes any verbal forms out of the simple root ga. The root sta also occurs in no other but the extended form sta-n-d-an.

Old High German has by the side of the forms stám, stás, stát; gám, gás, gát: also stém, stés, stét; gém, gés, gét, and even geist, geit, steist, steit. The extended roots ga-n-g-an, sta-n-t-an,

formed by means of reduplication and the infix -n- are used too side by side with the simple forms in the present, and in the preterite exclusively, because the latter do not form this tense; hence giang, stuont: the preterites of gangu, stantu, belong also to gám and stám.

Old Saxon has but few fragments of the verb gdn, namely 3rd sing. pres.  $g\acute{e}$ -d, and the infin. te- $g\acute{a}n$ -de. In the Heliand no trace is found, the whole verb being replaced by the extended form gangan. Of the verb  $st\acute{a}n$  are found the 2nd sing.  $st\acute{e}s$ , 3rd  $st\acute{e}d$ ,  $st\acute{e}d$ ,  $st\acute{e}d$ ,  $st\acute{e}d$ ,  $st\acute{e}d$ ,  $st\acute{e}d$ , st and other forms are replaced by those of standan.

Anglo-Saxon has all the principal forms: 1st sing. gå, 2nd gæst, gæð; subj. sing. 3rd. gå, imper. gå, plur. gå-ð, infin. gån, part. ge-gån; but those of gangan occur side by side with them: the preterite is gieng, geong, géng of gangan, or eode, like the Gothic iddja, derived from the root i (to go), with the suffix of the weak preterite. The verb stån does not occur, but only the extended form standan, pret. stôd, stôdon.

Old Frisian has of the root ga only 3rd sing. gáth, geith, plur. gá-th; pret. part. gén; all other forms supplied by gunga, pret. géng, gengon, part. gangen, gengen, gendzen. Of the root sta we find only the infin. stán and 3rd sing. stét; everywhere else stonda, stód, stódon, stenden (stinsen).

Old Norse has no forms of the roots ga and sta, which are supplied by ganga, gêkk, gêngam, genginn, and standa, stôð, stôðum, staðinn.

# THE MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

# German.

Middle High German and New High German develop the different forms of the verb tuom from the Old High German according to the phonetic laws. The diphthong uo is preserved in Middle High German, but replaced by u in New High German; as to the personal terminations they are subject to the same rules here as in the strong conjugation. The forms of gan and stan are the same as in Old High German, and may, as in the latter dialect interchange with stan, state, state, gan, gast, gat, and even gaist, gait, staist, stait. New High German has apparently lost these forms unless we derive gah-e, gah-st, gah-t, from ga, ga-st, ga-t, &c., which would correspond to the Old High

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Umlaut is no doubt owing to the fact that gast and gas were considered to have arisen by syncope of gangest, ganges.

German gá-m, gá-st, gá-t; géh-en=gá-n. The preterite is of course both in Middle High German and Old High German gienc, gieng, from an obsolete gangen. The N. H. Germ. stéhe stéhst for sté, sté-st, infin. stéh-en for stén stands in the same relation to O. H. Germ. stá-m, stá-s, infin. stá-n. The pret. stand, plur. M. H. Germ. stunden, N. H. Germ. standen, belongs to an obsolete infinitive standen. The result therefore with regard to Modern German would be this: the forms of the present, including the infinitive and participle are derived from the simple roots gu and sta, those of the preterite including the participles from the extended roots in the lost infinitives gangen, standen.

# English.

The different forms of the Anglo-Saxon don are preserved in the different periods; but in late Saxon already the 1st singular present loses the personal termination -m, while the st of the 2nd, the % of the 3rd, and the a of the plural are still found in Middle English. New English has dropped the plural termination and replaced the the of the ard singular by s. The forms of the simple root on have gained the better over the extended gangan, which at an early date disappeared from English altogether. Layamon has, as in dest, de 8, thus also in gest, ge8, preserved the Anglo-Saxon Umlaut. The writer of the Ormulum returns to the original vowels o and a in do-st, ga-st, &c. Old English has still the Umlaut in dest, de-p, but rejects it in ga, where it darkens the original c into go, gost, go-b, forms which were adopted in all subsequent periods to the present day. The simple root sta, on the other hand, has disappeared from English since the late Saxon times, Layamon and the Ormulum already using the extended form standen, darkened into stonden, instead of it, which forms run side by side in Old English and Middle English and settle down into the New English stand.

### Dutch.

The different forms of the verb 'to do' are mostly preserved in the Middle Dutch infinitive doen: pres. doe, does, doet, plur. doen; pret. dede, dades, dede, plur. daden; subj. dade; pret. part, daen. New Dutch has the infin. doen, pres. 1st doe. 3rd doet, plur. doen; pret. ded. plur. deden; part. ge-dan, Germ. ge-tán. gaen and staen have several forms in the present besides the infinitive just mentioned: 3rd sing. gaet, staet; occasionally ghét, stêt; 1st sing. gae, stae. The forms of the preterite are derived from gangen and standen. The New Dutch infinitives gán (gaan) and stán

(staan) may scarcely be considered the forms of the simple root, but rather contractions of the extended infinitives gangen, standen, in the same manner as 1st sing. sta, ga, seem to be used for stande, gange, gestan for gestanden. The preterites are regularly ging and stand of gangen and standen.

### Scandinavian.

Swedish and Danish have no verbal forms derived from the root da. The Swedish infin. gå, pres. går may be taken as the representatives of the simple root ga or as contractions of ganga, ganger; the pret. gick, ginga, will find its explanation in the Old Norse gekk, gengum. In a similar manner must be viewed the forms står, stöd, ståden, infin. stå. Analagous to the Swedish are the Danish forms gaaer, gik, gangen, infin. gaae; and staaer, stöd, standen, infin. staae.

# The roots as, bû, vas (to be).

Gothic makes all the forms of the present out of the root as, all the forms of the preterite out of the root vas. Concerning the other Old Teutonic languages we may lay down as a general rule that as and bu are used in the formation of the present tense, vas in the formation of the preterite. The latter is the preterite of an infinitive visan (manere), which follows our eighth conjugational class, visa, vas, vésum, visans. This fact will suffice for our guidance in explaining the different forms of this root used to supply certain forms of the verb 'to be.' As to the firstmentioned roots a few remarks will not be out of place here. We leave it for the student to compare the paradigm of the present tense in the Teutonic languages with that of as-mi in the primitive language, and to trace the modifications to which the root as well as the personal terminations are liable: our remarks are intended to direct his attention to a few important points.

Root as. The primitive radical a is in the Teutonic languages weakened to i; but this i appears in Anglo-Saxon as  $\ddot{eo}$ , which must be looked upon as the Brechung of i. The Brechung was most likely caused by a succeeding r, which would stand for the primitive s of the root as; hence as-mi is modified into the Gothic  $\dot{e}(s)-m(i)$ , this again by rhotacism into  $\dot{e}(r)-m(i)$ , whence the A. S. eo(r)-m(i), the O. N. e(r)-m(i), i. e.  $\ddot{e}om$ ,  $\ddot{e}m$ =Goth. im. By the side of  $\ddot{e}om$  we find in some of the northern Saxon dialects eam, am, forms in which the English am will find its explanation. The 2nd person, where the Goth.  $i-s=\dot{e}(s)-s(i)$  represents the

prim, as-si, the A. S. eart, must be considered an analogous form to eous, so that the Sanskrit asi=as-si, for a still more ancient as-ti=as-tra, appears in Anglo-Saxon with the most primitive termination, -t, which as a rule we find only in the 2nd singular preterite. The 3rd person of the Goth, and H. Germ, is-t='is-fi approaches closely the primitive form as-ti = as-ta (to be kept distinct from as-si, as-ti = as-tea of the 2nd). Anglo-Saron however, and its English descendants, drop the terminational and put the mere root is = as. The 3rd plur. of Goth., O. H. Germ., and Modern Germ. s-ind = is-ind has the personal suffix of the prim. as-anti almost intact. This form was in the course of time no longer understood in its plural capacity, wherefore the Anglo-Saxons superadded the plural termination (on = 111) of the preterite) in sindon, Old Saxon sindun. Modern German introduced the form sind into the 1st plural as well, which in analogy to Middle High German ought to be sein instead of sind. The double plural form in Anglo-Saxon is peculiar, where, by the side of sindon, we have from the same root the plur. as This ar-on refers to the O. N. er-u-m, and is sometimes placed by earns. From this and the Old Norse form we me he warranted to take the a as the representative of the Brechu ea, and the latter to have arisen from the fact of the vowel ithe root is=as being under the influence of a succeeding r in which the ancient s was converted, so that the course would from as-masi to 'is-m, and, the two succeeding consonants quiring a connective vowel, is-u-m, ir-u-m, O. N. cr-u-m, A. ear-u-n, ar-o-n, whence the English we are, &c. The Goth 1st and 2nd plural as well as the subjunctive having lost the vowel of the root as, and dropped everything of the terminatio except the consonant, would be reduced to nothing but two co sonants, e.g. 1st plur. 8-m for prim. as-masi. A vowel beir necessary for the sake of pronunciation it adopted the theme -e the subjunctive for the plural as well. Now the subjunct theme is formed, not like the primitive as-y-m by bringing the of the root and the suffix ja in direct contact, which would make s-ja-, but, by supporting the radical s by i, Gothic makes the ubj. Sijas. a theme sija-, her subjunctive as if it we This theme then w too as the the = and and plural, and afte r of perfect milar tendene connective u, hence rite has alre forms after the analo in the O. N. er-u-m, I we shall of the O. H. Germ. pi-r-u dle High G analogue, sin, and sit, Dutch zin,

me sija- in a contracted state. Thus also we explain the submetives si or se, often sio, sie, Germ. sei, as the contracted form

the theme sija- of the Goth. subj. sijau, sij-ai-s, &c.

Roor bû. It appears in Old Saxon as biu, in Anglo-Saxon as in Old High German in the weakened form pi. Anglo-Saxon alone derives from this root forms for all the persons of the present tense, indicative as well as subjunctive; so that in the mentioned dialect we have two, sometimes three, forms for each person side by side in the present tense. Old High German, Old Saxon, and Old Frisian, use the root but in the 1st and 2nd singular, and Old High German throughout the plural. Compare O. H. Germ. pim, O. S. bium, A. S. beom, O. Fris. bem; 2nd O. H. Germ. pi-s or pi-st, O. S. bi-st, A. S. bi-st, O. Fris. bi-st. Derived from these are the M. H. Germ. and N. H. Germ. bin, .bist, M. Dutch bem, best, N. Dutch ben; m changed to n according to the phonetic laws. In the 3rd singular and the plural of the indicative, and throughout the subjunctive, Anglo-Saxon alone derives its forms from the root bu, which through Late Saxon and Old and Middle English run side by side with forms derived from the root as, and even in Modern English he is sometimes used dialectically for are in the plural. The Old High German plural pi-r-u-més, &c., has been formed in analogy to the ancient perfect themes in s. Some consider this r to stand in place of an original w, hence pi-r-u-mes for pi-w-u-mes, primitive bha-v-d-mas; but I incline to the view of those who refer the r to a more ancient s, because this view is borne out by the analogy of the Old Norse perfect forms, seri, grêri, &c. (See p. 401.) In later documents pirumés is shortened to pirun, then piru, pirut to pirt, forms which still appear in Middle High German as birn and birt. There is also in Middle High German a form bint in the 2nd plural which must originally have come from the 3rd plural, and is formed with the root  $b\hat{u}$ , bi, as sint with the root as, the former perhaps in analogy to the latter. The formations of the present subjunctive, as far as they are derived from the root as, have already been touched upon. Anglo-Saxon however makes its subjunctive out of three different roots, as, bu and vas. Later English dialects have selected out of these the root ba, beo, which, since Old English times, assumes the form be for the present subjunctive; for the infinitive, the present and preterite participle, N. Engl. to be, being, been. The modern Scandinavian dialects adopted the form of the 3rd person (Swed. ar, Dan. er) for the 1st and 2nd as well, and in the plural use the same root with the usual termination. Their subjunctive, if subjunctive they have, is formed by means of the root var = vas. Thus then

we might sum up, to the effect that the English dialects form their subjunctive with the root bd, High German and Dutch with the root as, the Scandinavian languages with the root vas. (Old Norse has as and vas side by side, e. g. 1st sing. s-c and ver-i.)

Root was. It is used in all the Teutonic dialects, ancient and modern, to form the preterite of the verb 'to be.' It is one of the verbs of Class VIII, and treated as such; its Ablaut therefore is Goth. visa, vas, vesum, visans; O H. Germ. wisu, was, warnes, wësanër; A.S. wëse, wäs, wæron, wësen. We need therefore hardly point out the manner in which it forms its plural and subjunctive, the former being conditioned by the conjugational class to which the verb belongs, the latter being dependent on . the form of the plural. As to the and pers. sing. it follows the analogy of other strong verbs, that is, in Gothic and Old Norse it has the form of the singular with the termination -t, in the other dialects it takes the form of the plural with the vocalic termination i or c. The c of the root vac is intact in Gothic, while in Old Norse it submits to rhotacism throughout; in Old High German and the other dialects (Middle High German included) the s remains in the 1st and 3rd sing., but yields to rhotacism in the plural and all forms dependent on it. The Modern High German and Scandinavian languages have t throughout; the English, early and modern, as well as the Modern Dutch, keep the s in the singular and submit to rhotacism in the plural and the subjunctive which is dependent on it. The infinitive, the participles, and the imperative, avail themselves of different roots in different languages, the details of which formstions, to gather from the paradigm, may be left as an interesting and profitable task to the student.

A few hints about the forms of Modern English must conclude our remarks. The present indicative is formed exclusively with the root as, where Scandinavian forms have gained the ascendancy, chiefly in the plural. The root beo  $(b\vec{u})$  is used for the formation of the present subjunctive, the infinitive, the participles and the imperative. The preterite indicative and subjunctive are formed with the root vas, which still presents the ancient Ablaut between the radicals of the sing, and plur. was, were. The 2nd sing. indic. instead of the A. S. were, makes the form wast, which occurs in Gothic already, though in the Saxon tongue it does not reach back beyond Middle English; by its side we find wert, which is formed after the analogy of shall and will with the primitive suffix -t of the 2nd sing. It is against grammar to use this wert for the 2nd sing. subjunc-

tive, which should always have were.

# PRÆTERITO-PRÆSENTIA.

There are in the Teutonic as well as in other languages verbs which, after having lost their present, express the meaning of the lost tense by means of the preterite. Well known among these are the Latin verbs odi, coepi, memini, the Greek olda. Verbs of this class in the Teutonic languages have, moreover, the peculiarity to substitute a new preterite form in the place of that which has undertaken the functions of the present. This new preterite is formed by means of the suffix -da of weak verbs, which is added to the plural of the original strong preterite. It results from this as a matter of course that the preterite of this class of verbs shows both the Ablaut of the strong and

the tense-suffix of the weak conjugation.

In considering the meaning of the verbs of this class we examine first those which occur in Gothic and the other Teutonic dialects equally, and then a few which are not found in Gothic; it will be convenient to interpret them by their Latin equivalents: kann (novi) has its origin in a verb kinnan (gignere) with which we may compare the root in the O. H. Germ. chind, Germ. kind (proles); kann, the preterite of kinnan therefore originally was identical in meaning with the Latin genui. parf (egeo) is the preterite of a lost infinitive pairban (agere, facere, operari), and must originally have been an expression used in religious rites, with the signification 'I have spent, offered,' 'I am without a sacrifice and wait for another.' Dars (audeo), from dairsan, perhaps with the original signification 'I have fought.' Skal (debeo) must come from a present skila, which meant 'I kill,' and with which we may compare skilja (butcher); skal, therefore, meant 'I have killed,' 'I must pay penance, wergeld;' hence 'I am under an obligation,' 'I am obliged,' 'I must.' Man refers us to a present form mina (cogito), and has the signification of the Latin memini, 'I have thought over,' therefore 'I remember.' Mag (possum) is the preterite of an ancient verb migan (crescere, gignere), and thus originally expresses the meaning 'I have begotten, produced,' hence 'I am able.' Nah (sufficere), from an infinitive naihan, is considered to have been of the same signification as the preceding verb. Aih (habeo) comes from an infinitive eigan (to labour, to work), whence the preterite would mean 'I have worked,' 'I have earned,' therefore 'I possess.' Láis (didici, olda) comes from a lost present leisa

(calce, pede premo), which strictly means 'I have traced,' 'I am on the track, and may be compared with the O. H. Germ. leist, a track, vestigium. Fait (seio) comes from the root vit and requires a present form reifan (videre), which is in reality preserved in the compounds in-veitan (adorare), fraveitan (ulciso); Compare the Gr. mon, Sansk mida, both from the same root of (to see), and with the meaning 'I know.' Dang (prosum, valed from a present diagan, probably with the meaning of 'gigner's to beget.' Mot (locum habeo) from a present mata, which obscure in its origin and signification. Og (timeo) comes from present aga (tremo) of which the present participle is preserv in unaganda (without fear, fearless1). An (faveo), which does n occur in Gothic, but is preserved in Old High German and so other dialects, must come from an infinitive innan. Knd (p sum), which occurs in Old Norse only, is no doubt related the O. H. Germ. knwot (natura), the Goth. knoda (yévos), and Sanskrit root jan (gignere). The Old Norse muna (records and munn (μέλλεω) are no doubt of the same origin, as they much alike in meaning: the difference of the infinitive forms remarkable, the former being the present infinitive, the lat very likely a remnant of the ancient preterite infinitive in Norse.

### PARADIGM.

O. H. Germ. Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon Old Norse	Pres. Sing.  an  [an]  an  ann	Pres. Plur. unnumés . [unnum] . unnon unnum	Preterite. onda, onsta onsta usse. unna	Infinitive.  unnan . favete [unuan] . "  unnan . "  unnan . "
Gothic O. H. Germ. Old Saxon Anglo-Saxon Old Frisian Old Norse	kann can	kunnum kunnumés	kunpa kunda, kunsta consta cube kunda kun	kunnan . nov kunnan . nov cunnan cunnan kunna
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		Pres. Plur. Pretes			
Gothic	môt	mólum mósla		môtan	locum haber
		muozumés . { muosa muoed			
Old Saxon	môt	môtun môsta		môtan	pp 17
Anglo-Saxon	môt	môton môste		môtan	pp 17
Old Frisian	môt	móton móste		môta	
Gothic		ôgum ôhta .			
Old Norse	mun, man .	munum mund	<b>a.</b> .	{mundu} .	μέλλεσ
Old Norse	kná	knégum knátto		krêga	posse

# REMARKS ON THE PARADIGM OF PRÆTERITO-PRÆSENTIA.

The inflexions are the same as those of the strong preterites in general; the 2nd singular therefore of the present (the ancient preterite) has -t, the 1st plural -u-m, &c. The preterite suffix -da is inflected as in weak verbs and added directly to the preterite theme without a connective vowel, so that the consonant of the termination da and the preceding consonant of the preterite theme often modify one the other; hence the pret. of kann, kunha, of harf, plur. haurbum, pret. haurfta1; mag, pret. mahta ; váit, plur. vitum, pret. vissa for †vis-ta2, †vit-ta; mót. pret. môsta<sup>2</sup> for môt-ta—modifications which are strictly in accordance with Gothic phonetic laws. As to the Ablaut, it is to be noticed how the radical of the present (ancient pret.) plural is changed in skulum for \*skelum, munum for \*menum, while the plur. magum retains the a of the preterite singular instead of the common plural in  $\hat{e}$ . The infinitive has always the radical of the present (ancient pret.) plural. The verb ogan has a 2nd sing. imper. ôgs; may we thence infer an imper. môts, dugs? With regard to kunnan, munan, ritan, it may be observed that their confreres munan (mente agitare, velle, μέλλεω), vitan (observare), and ga-kunnan (observare) follow the third weak conjugation.

Old High German. The inflexions are the same as with the strong conjugation in general; only in the 2nd sing. pres. (ancient pret.) the ancient termination -t is preserved, which in the 2nd pret. of all other strong verbs has been lost. An s is added to the t in the verb chan, chan-st. This -st probably arose in analogy to the s-t in vais-t for vait-t, where the Gothic phonetic law requires the change of a dental into s before the termination t. How this termination -st gradually crept into the 2nd person of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> f and h owing to the succeeding t.

<sup>2</sup> Dental before dental changed into s.

the present and preterite we have observed elsewhere, as well as the persistency with which the ancient -t keeps its place in some of the preterito-presentia up to the present day. an forms the pret. onda and onsta; kann, pret. konda, konsta, kunda, kunsta; and bi-ginnan, following their analogy, makes, by the side of its regular pret. bi-gan, also bigonda, bi-gansta.

Old Saxon. The termination of the 2nd singular is -t, except can-st and far-manst: biginnan has, besides the regular pret.

Legan, the form begonsta.

Anglo-Saxon. The 2nd singular had originally the termination -t, but the vocalic ending of the common preterite of strong verbs gradually replaced the ancient termination; hence an, unne, can, cunne, pearf, purfe, &c.; but dear has by the side of durre the more ancient dearst: besides this there are preserved canst, genanst, dhst—all having interpolated the s before the ending -t. cude, with do for nd (comp. the letters n and d).

Old Frisian. The 2nd singular occurs only once, of the verb skila, 2nd skalt. skilu and mugu appear to be dual forms used in the signification of the plural. Some of the præterito-præsentia in this dialect adopt forms of the weak conjugation; thus, for example, wét (of wita) has sometimes the weak form wit, plur. witath; of duga there occurs the 3rd sing. ducht; plur. in late Frisian daged; of aga we find a 3rd sing. acht. bijenna has, by the side of the regular preterite, also bigunde, bigonste.

Old Norse. The 2nd singular ends in -t, as the preterite of strong verbs generally. Under the influence of this terminational t consonants are affected in the same manner as we showed above with regard to strong verbs. pora (andere) and duga (valere) make the pres. pori, dugi, pret. poroa, dugoa; oga (metuere)

follows the second weak conjugation.

The infinitives skulu and munu are considered by Grimm as remnants of an ancient formation of a preterite infinitive in Old Norse. As such Grimm mentions also füru (ivisse), stöðu (stetisse); there occur also skyldu, myndu, and bendu, preterite infinitive of benda.

### VERBS FOLLOWING THE ANALOGY OF PRÆTERITO-PRÆSENTIA.

There are a few verbs in the Teutonic languages which in the formation of their preterite follow the analogy of the preterito-presentia, that is, they take both the Ablaut of the strong, and

regulion, the latter without

me),, must jiuli, pest, jošu; and the profession (atts, Gent. ), Smilte (Somelit); midne Idiografian (mlaphan),

te timit. Germ. denten), preter. Comp. distribute, to seen, 49the world, parts somitt, marks, mornality firelities (to fest,

son the listme), prest, feelile.

E Britise, serie bilisened, park soulit " westeld: : iruss, invalue to reng. mente dania. Ameris to think, theire; theneral the West-Franks mest whose the chicken; because to been he de sinne meente and the monnious forms invade, Dimmete.

Old Forme fungic viller . pres. wither but benebe to think; has you it. not write.

Bessies the write just mentioned there is in all Tentonic langauges the way in will. Goth, where which also indians the annings if preferits presently, and has interest a few peculiarties it its ive which beserve special mention. The Gothic rilies I will has in the present only this subjunctive form which originally belinged to the preterite. By the sale of this there must have been an ancient indicative preterite sing, roll, plur. shows, and a present sing, some Class V. The preterite subinnerive is used as supply the forms of the present indicative, and the new animalitus preterite raids is formed out of the plural form vilue. The present, being originally the subjunctive of the preterite, is indected, as this form usually is, in the strong

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> As to the intex a in Jupitium, Jupitium, of the roots Juk, and Juk see Formation of the Present.

\* Metathesia. 3 # = ld, we the respective letters.

conjugation, as viljau, vileis, vili, &c.; the new preterite makes the indicative vilda, vildes, &c., and the subjunctive vildedjau, &c., after the manner of weak verbs in general. Old High German. The verb wëllan strives after indicative forms in the present tense, and the conjugation is therefore subject to considerable Thus we have true preterite subjunctive forms in wili, wilis, wili; but present subjunctive forms in the plur. wëllêmés, &c. An endeavour to assume indicative forms we see in the 2nd sing. wilt, a form analogous to the præterito-præsentia; and in the 3rd plur. wollent, wëllent, wëllant for wellen, &c.; 3rd sing. wilt for wili. The preterite indicative is always in imitation of the præterito-præsentia wolta, rarely wëlta, subj. wolti. Old Saxon has, more decidedly than Old High German, acquired indicative forms for the verb willjan, so that we find in the present an indicative and subjunctive kept strictly distinct, as indic. willju, wili or wilt, wili, wil, or wilit, plur. willjad; subj. willje (-ea), willjes (-eas), plur. willjen (-ean); pres. welda, wolda; subj. weldi, woldi. Anglo-Saxon takes a similar course: pres. sing. wille, wilt, wille; plur. willad, pret. wolde. Old Frisian pres. sing. wille, will, wille (also wilt, wil, &c.); plur. willath; pret. welde, wolde. Old Norse vilja, velle, has the following forms: pres. sing. vil, vill and vilt, vill (for vil-r), plur. viljum, vilio, vilja; subj. vili, pret. vilda.

# MIDDLE AND NEW TEUTONIC LANGUAGES.

### English.

The Goth. kann, A.S. can (con) we find throughout all the periods of the English language. It takes -st in the 2nd, hence canst; in the plural we find the Ablaut n down to Middle English, hence, cunnen, kunnen; New English makes the plural and singular alike. The n of the Gothic pret. kunpa was dropped in the A.S. cáse, Orm. cupe, O. Engl. coupe, M. Engl. coude; N. Eng. could, perhaps in analogy of would and should.

The Goth. parf, A.S. pearf, appears in the Late Saxon plur. purfen, pret. purfte, O. Engl. tharf; it is lost in New English.

The Goth. dars, A. S. dear, is preserved in the der, dar of Early and dare of Modern English. The 2nd sing. -st throughout. The 3rd sing. (as all the præterito-præsentia) like the 1st; but New English introduced dares by the side of dare, plur. Late Saxon durren, O. Engl. durre, M. Engl. durn, N. Engl. dare.

The preservice Goth. descrete, A.S. dorete, we find in the late Saxon durete, O. Engl. and M. Engl. donete, N. Engl. duret.

The A.S. genuseur is only in the Ormulum subject. succ.

gret, munit, de,

The A. S. unner we find in Layamon as on, plur. i-unner, pret. Sie, Orm. Spe, and in the Old English pres. sing. and infin. on. Goth. shot, A. S. scool, Orm. shell, O. Engl. and M. Engl. scholl, N. Engl. shell; 2nd, -! throughout; plur. A. S. scoller, Lay. sculer, Orm. shelenn, O. Engl. schollep, M. Engl. scholler, New Engl. shell; pret. Goth. shulds, A. S. scoolde, Lay. scolle, Orm. shells, O. Engl. and M. Engl. scholle, N. Engl. should, the I suppressed in pronunciation, perhaps in analogy to could M. Engl. scoole.

. The A. S. dedd cooms only in the grd sing. ded of the Ormulus

and O. Bagl. dut.

Goth. may, A. S. may, Lay. mai, Orm. may, O. Eng., M. Engl. and N. Engl. may; 2nd, A. S. masht, O. Engl. mist, mist, &c., M. Engl. maist, N. Engl. mayer; subj., A. S. mage, O. Engl. moses; prot., A. S. measte, O. Engl. miste, myste, &c., N. Engl. mist.

Goth. voit, A. S. wolf, Late Sax. wel, O. Engl. and M. Engl.; pet(e), N. Engl. wel; and, west, west throughout, lost in N. Engl.; plur. witen, witen throughout, lost in N. Engl.; pret. A. S. wist, Lay. wuste, Orm. wisste, O. Engl. and M. Engl. wiste, N. Engl. wist; infin., A. S. witen, Late Sax. witen, O. Engl. and M. Engl.

witen, wite, N. Engl. to wit.

Goth. did, A. S. dh, Late Sax. ah, O. Engl. anh, onh, M. Engl. are, over, N. Engl. over; 2nd sing., -est, or -ist; plur. -en; pret. Goth. didta, A. S. dhte, Late Sax. ahte, ahhte, O. Engl. aste, M. Engl. over, N. Engl. over, Layamon already applies this verb in the two distinct senses of possession and duty; the latter we find in phrases such as 'he ah to don'='he has to do,' he ought.' In connection with this sense it developed the meaning of being in debt, 'to owe,' which verb follows the weak conjugation, ought being quite reserved for the expression of moral obligation. The meaning of possession is, in Modern English, attached to the verb 'to own,' which seems to have arisen from the part. agen, awen, owen, or from the A. S. agnjan (to possess).

The A.S. most we find with slight variations throughout all periods; the present is lost in New English; pret. Goth. mosta, A.S. moste we find in Early English as moste, N. Engl. must. The A.S. wille appears as wille, wolle, walle in the different Early English periods, N. Engl. will; 2nd sing. will (or wolt,

wult in Early English); plur. willeh, wulleh, &c., or wilen, wolen, N. Engl. will; pret. A. S. wolde, Early Engl. wolde, walde, N. Engl. would, l not pronounced, perhaps in analogy to could, M. Engl. coude.

### German.

M. H. Germ. 1st muoz, 2nd muost, plur. muezen, pret. muoste (also muosa, muese); N. H. Germ. muß, mußt, mußten, mußte. M. H. Germ. weiz, weist, wizzen, wiste (weste, wisse 1, wesse); N. H. Germ. weiß, weißt, wißen, wußte. M. H. Germ. touc, töht, tügen, tohte; N. H. Germ. tauge (weak). M. H. Germ. mac, maht, mügen, mohte (mahte); N. H. Germ. mag, magst, moegen, mochte. M. H. Germ. sol, solt, süln, solte; N. H. Germ. soll (weak). M. H. Germ. gan, ganst, günnen, gunde; N. H. Germ. gönne (weak). M. H. Germ. kan, kanst, künnen, kunde; N. H. Germ. kann, kannst, können, konnte. M. H. Germ. tar, tarst, turren, torste; N. H. Germ. lost. M. H. Germ. darf, darft, dürfen, dorfte; N. H. Germ. darf, darfst, dürfen, durfte. M. H. Germ. wil (welle), wil (wellest, wellen, wolte); N. H. Germ. will, willst, wollen, wollte. Inorganic Umlaut is, in the present indicative plural and in the infinitive, both in Middle High German and New High German. But perhaps we may suppose in Middle High German the infinitives muozen, tugen, kunnen, durfen, &c., by the side of muezen, tügen, künnen, dürfen. The preterite subjunctive which has never Umlaut in weak verbs (e. g. brennen, pret, subj. M. H. Germ. brante, N. H. Germ. brannte, not brente, brännte).

# Dutch.

M. Dutch 1st moet, 2nd moetes, plur. moeten, pret. moeste; N. Dutch 1st moet, plur. moeten, pret. moest, part. gemoeten. M. Dutch dóch, doghes, doghen, dochte; N. Dutch deug, deugen, docht. M. Dutch mach, moghes, moghen, mochte; N. Dutch mág, mógen, mocht, gemocht. M. Dutch sal, sules, sulen, sulde (soude¹); N. Dutch zal, zullen, zoude¹ (zou). M. Dutch an, onnes, onnen, onste; N. Dutch lost. M. Dutch can, connes, connen, conste; N. Dutch kan, konnen, konde (kon, kost), gekonnen (gekost). M. Dutch dar, dorres, dorren, dorste; N. Dutch derr (weak). M. Dutch dærf, dorves, dorven [dorfte]; N. Dutch durf, durven, dorst (this preterite originally belonged to der). M. Dutch wille, willes, willen, wilde (woude); N. Dutch wil, willen, wilde (vulg.

<sup>1</sup> Compare Goth. vissa.

<sup>2</sup> The contraction ou for old, ald.



# APPENDIX.

The reader is requested to compare with these notes the Tables of Possessive Pronouns on pp. 197 and 198, where they ought to have been inserted.

### REMARKS ON THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

The possessive pronouns are in close relationship to the genitives of the personal pronouns, the theme of both being identical.

They take the inflexions of the strong declension of adjectives; the weak inflexions, as they occur in Old High German alone, are quite isolated.

In Gothic the nom. sing. and plur. of seins, seina, seinata, is not used, but the gen. of the demonst. pron. of the 3rd person. (Gen. masc. is, fem. izô, neut. is; plur. izê, izô, izê; compare the use in Greek of the genitive of the personal instead of the possessive pronoun.)

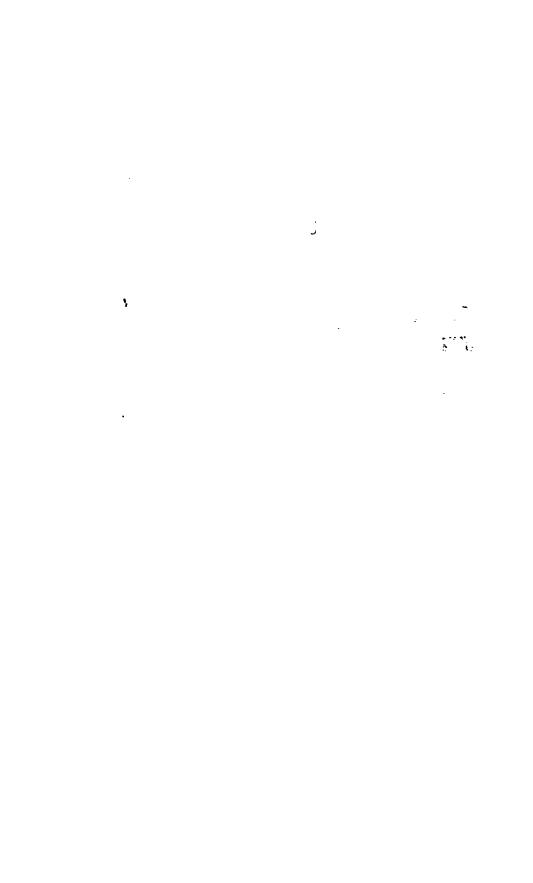
The O. H. Germ. unsarêr, iwarêr, occur in a shortened form unsêr, iwêr.

The A S. *user* has a parallel form in ure. User, whenever s and r (after the elision of e) meet in the inflexions, assimilates the r to the s and thus produces the gemination ss.

The declension, therefore, of the A.S. user and ure is as follows:—

SINGULAR								
	Ŋ	fasculine.		Fe	minine	·.	Neut	ler.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Accus.	ûser,  ûserne,	ûre ûseres, ûserum, ûrne	น. น์เธย น์เธย m	ûserre,	û:se,	ûrre	ûser, ûres ûrum ûser,	::

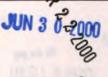
I LURAL.						
1	Neuter.					
úsere.	વૈકક્ટ,	ûre	duer, dre			
′		ાોકકત	ure			
• •			drum			
ûtere,	પૈકલ્ટ,	ûrc	user, ûre			
	ûsere,	Masculine dsere, dsse, dsera, dserum,	Masculine.  dsere, dsse, dre dsera, dssa dserum, dssum			







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